The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 28, 1895.

The Week.

A FRIEND of General Harrison's has explained why the ex-President was not able to give us a war with England in 1890. Such an explanation is, of course, intended to show that Mr. Harrison presides over foreign-missionary assemblies and conducts prayer-meetings only as a bit of by-play, and that he is really just the warlike and death-dealing candidate for the Presidency that the times require. If he is, why did he not jump at the chance of killing thousands of men, for the sake of thousands of seals, when it was so temptingly offered him five years ago? Well, says Gen. Harrison's friend, he was ready to jump; he was fairly aching for a war with Great Britain; and had fully made up his mind to have one, but he sounded the Senate first and found, to his deep disgust, that it would not back him up. So he had to retreat the best way he could, consent to arbitration, with its humiliating results, and sadly resign all the carnage and glory. This may be true, but the Bering Sea correspondence of 1889-'90 easily lends itself to another interpretation. On September 12, 1889, the British Government wanted to know if any more British ships were to be seized in Bering Sea. Two days later Mr. Blaine defiantly refused to give "a categorical response," and, by January 22, 1890, had worked himself up to a point where he spoke openly of "forcible resistance," to which the President felt "constrained." In due time came a notice that England would protest against any more seizures of her vessels on the high seas. This instantly changed matters, and Lord Salisbury was urgently besought to agree to a single closed season, and informed that the United States Government was most anxious to negotiate, and deprecated "untoward events." But Sir Julian Pauncefote insisted upon getting a "categorical response" about the seizures, and, when it was not forthcoming, left with the State Department on June 14, 1890, a formal notification that "her Britannic Majesty's Government must hold the Government of the United States responsible for the consequences that may ensue from acts which are contrary to the established principles of international law." After that all was peace and politeness, and arbitration was speedily arranged. On this war record we do not see how Mr. Harrison can hope to be elected President. Mr. Roosevelt would have had a war on the spot, Senate or no Senate, and international law be hanged.

Gen. Alger's reply to Senator Sherman's charge that he had bought the "poor negroes" in the Republican convention of 1888 may lack something of conclusiveness as to the main issue, but it shuts, or ought to shut, the Senator's mouth completely. Whatever may have been the facts, and whatever Senator Sherman may have thought about them at the time, he wrote a letter to Gen. Alger four years later in which he said: "I assure you that, since our interview on the cars last summer, I cherish no prejudice or unkindness for the incident of the national convention of 1888." He must have forgotten the existence of this letter when he wrote in his book in 1895: "I believe, and had (as I thought) conclusive proof, that the friends of Gen. Alger substantially purchased the votes of many of the delegates from the Southern States who had been instructed by their conventions to vote for me." How could he still "believe" this in 1895 of a man to whom he had written in 1892 that he cherished no prejudice or unkindness on account of this charge, which he then must have thought unfounded? The inference most flattering to Senator Sherman which people will draw is, that his powers are failing, and that he is a fresh illustration of what Rochefort says, at the beginning of his own recently published memoirs, that a man does not undertake to write his reminiscences until it is certain that he is good for nothing else. Meanwhile, the ease with which Gen. Alger spikes the gun aimed at him ought to encourage Gen. Harrison to come forward and refute the charge that he became President by signing himself away in advance as Platt's man.

The *Tribune's* citations of history are occasionally as peculiar as its political economy. It is deep in the mire on both at present, through its pathetically urgent efforts to prove that currency inflation has nothing to do with our present monetary complications. "The national policy of protection," the *Tribune* observed on Thursday, "kept the Treasury fortified with an adequate revenue and reserve down to the hour of President Cleveland's election." Did it? What, then, was the meaning of Secretary Foster's apologies, in his Treasury report covering the year ending June 30, 1892, for his failure to fulfil by $9,000,000 the annual requirements under the sinking-fund law? So far were the revenue and reserve from being "adequately fortified" in this period, before the nomination of Mr. Cleveland, that even the deficient payment of $40,570,000 for the sinking-fund was provided, not from the surplus of the year—this was only $9,914,000—but from $16,200,000 appropriated from a trust fund in the Treasury, and $14,400,000 taken from the surplus of other years. "If this demand [for gold]," wrote Secretary Foster again in his report for the year ending June 30, 1892, "should prove to be as large the coming year *as it has been for the past two years*, the gold in the Treasury would be diminished to or below the reserve line." "The past two years," it will be observed, exactly cover the period following the enactment of the silver-purchase law of 1890, "fortified" by the "national policy of protection" as embodied in the McKinley tariff act.

The simple truth is—and Senator Sherman understands it, whether his feeble echo in the *Tribune* does or not—that the financial ruin of the past five years is traceable unmistakably to the performances of that astonishing Congress. McKinley, Reed, and Harrison came into office with an overflowing treasury, inherited from the first Cleveland Administration. For a year before their accession, the Government had paid out $32,000,000 surplus in redemption of bonds not required by the sinking fund. What did the McKinley Congress do? It found the Government a great banking institution, dependent for its credit on limited outstanding obligations as well as on a sufficient revenue. It deliberately went to work, and by 1892 had cut down the federal revenue 13 per cent., increased expenses 23 per cent., and expanded demand obligations 20 per cent., imposing at the same time an annual increase, in the floating debt, of $50,000,000. The strongest private corporation would have gone to wreck under such amazingly reckless policy; it is hardly surprising that the Treasury was forced to ask the aid of bankers. In Government finance nothing parallel to this has been witnessed since the financiering of the French Revolution. The *Tribune* and Senator Sherman coöperated to encourage and applaud this labor of destruction. And yet to-day both have the audacity to affirm that "the intelligent national policy" which "fortified the Treasury," was reversed only by the election of 1892. A more monstrous piece of political hypocrisy our national history fails to show.

Touching the renewal of work on the Panama Canal, some facts were recently published showing that the French company in charge of it has 1,800 men now actively engaged, and is collecting 2,000 more from Jamaica and other West Indian islands, intending eventually to increase its force to 6,000 men. Information which we consider trustworthy is to the effect that the money to finish the work on the present plan has all been pledged, and that nothing can prevent the opening of the canal at the appointed time except accidents or obstacles not now an-

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ticipated. The expectation of the managers is that the work can be completed in six years, *i. e.*, some time during the year 1901. This announcement has staggered the promoters of a Government subsidy for the Nicaragua Canal not a little, and their spirits will not be raised by the report of the Nicaragua Canal Commission. That document had been heralded in advance as an invincible argument for the subsidy. The *Herald's* telegraphed synopsis of it says that it points out "that it is neither practicable nor advisable to attempt the construction of the Nicaragua Canal upon the data at present available, and that the undertaking would be fraught with hazards too obvious to disregard."

The heads of the report are these: There ought to be a survey much more complete and thorough than any now existing, before the work is seriously taken in hand. Such a survey will cost $350,000 and will require eighteen months' time. With the data already in hand the Commission makes a provisional estimate of cost of $133,500,000, which is nearly double that made by the canal company itself. One of the differences of detail between the company's estimates and those of the Commission relates to the "rock-fill dam" on the San Juan to hold the lake and river of that name at a navigable elevation. The company estimated the cost of this dam at $977,273. The Commission puts it at $4,000,000, and says that the feasibility of it at any cost has not yet been demonstrated, since there have been no borings made of sufficient depth to show what kind of foundation the dam would rest on. This dam, it should be remarked, is the key to the whole enterprise. Until the feasibility of this dam is proved, the Commission would not advise the doing of any work other than that of survey. The Commission also finds that the entrance to the harbor at Greytown as proposed by the company is in the wrong place. It should be moved eastward a mile and a half, and the whole harbor should be dredged to a depth of thirty feet below low water. The entrance to the harbor at Brito, on the Pacific side, should be changed also. There is a lamentable want of detailed information all along the line, and particularly in reference to the rainfall and its effects upon earth-work, the height of rivers and lakes at particular seasons, etc. It appears that all plans have been based mainly on the Childs report of 1852, even the reports of the present Maritime Canal Company being in line with that of Childs, whose maps have been accepted without revision and published as those of 1885.

The Boston Home Market Club's dinner last week was attended by 500 strong and enthusiastic protectionists. Such were needed to sit through Warner Miller and Charles Emory Smith, and to live to tell the tale. While those sons of wind were speaking, Senator Frye was telling the York Club at Biddeford, Me., that he thought the woollen mills would hardly survive two years longer, but that they could not get any tariff relief within that period in any case. This makes it all the stranger that the Home Market Club did not have a lot of New England woollen-manufacturers present to demand a duty on wool at once. If what we hear is true, some such manufacturers were invited, but replied that they were quite willing to risk surviving two years, or even longer, under free wool. Many of them, moreover, are saying openly that if the Republicans want to cut their own throats, the most expeditious way to do it will be to go to ripping up the wool and woollens duties again. The business world cannot and will not stand it, they say. Senator Frye must have heard talk of this kind, and hence have refused to locate the Republican millennium anywhere within the "next fifteen years." But a millennium fifteen years off cannot prove a very powerful political motive with voters who know that half their number will be dead by that time. All true millenniums are due just after the next election. Ask Mr. Chauncey Depew about that.

The most encouraging thing about the recent municipal election in Baltimore is not the fact that a Republican was elected Mayor. There would be little gain to the people in the substitution of one party for the other if the new Mayor intended to run the government for the benefit of the Republican machine. The promising feature of the change is the apparent mastering, by the successful candidate, of the idea that the administration of public affairs in a great city is properly not a matter of party politics at all. In his inaugural address Mr. Hooper laid down these sound principles:

> "In my letter of acceptance I stated that my conception of the corporation known as the Mayor and City Council of Baltimore is that it is a corporation chartered by the Legislature of the State of Maryland for the purpose of conducting the municipal affairs of the citizens of Baltimore. I stated then, and I say now, that the Mayor of this corporation has duties similar to those of the president of any other corporation; that the members of the City Council bear a relation similar to that of directors in other corporations, and that the citizens are the stockholders. If this conception is a correct one, and I believe it is, then the affairs of the Mayor and City Council of Baltimore must be conducted on principles similar to those of any other business corporation. I know that this position has been and will be criticised adversely by many who do not take this view of municipal government, and yet I have at this time reiterated it, so that my platform will be clearly understood and my actions in the future be interpreted upon this basis."

Of course it remains to be seen how nearly Mr. Hooper will live up to this platform. But it is an immense gain to find a candidate for Mayor of a large city laying down such excellent principles in his letter of acceptance, and then emphatically reiterating these doctrines as the ones by which he will be bound, when he takes the oath of office.

The official canvass of the vote for this city shows that the first estimate, made immediately after election, as to the number of men who stayed away from the polls after registering was a great deal too high. Instead of being nearly 40,000, the actual number was only about 20,000. There were about 10,000 blank and defective ballots cast, and this fact was not disclosed till the official canvass was made. This accounts mainly for the mistake in the early estimate. As a matter of fact, the difference between the total vote and the registration was unusually small, showing that the interest in the election was maintained till the last. We shall have to admit, therefore, that Tammany carried the city on a square stand-up fight, and that they won because the respectable people of the city did not care to make the necessary effort to defeat them. The registration this year was 27,000 less than that of last year, and was fully 40,000 less than what it would be if the entire voting population were to register. Tammany always gets its full strength out, but even then it never musters much over a third of the voters of the city. This third wins because the two-thirds are too indifferent, or too partisan, or too lazy to combine in the interest of decent government and the good name of the city.

Mayor Strong revealed one of the chief beauties of Tammany government, in his speech at the Chamber of Commerce banquet last week, when he described the condition of our municipal buildings as disgraceful to our civilization and in many instances "detestable." That is the simple truth about them. As the Mayor said, the Tammany policy of Grant and Gilroy was to keep down the tax-rate in order to make the people content with Tammany rule. Accordingly all repairs were voted down, and the public buildings were allowed to go to ruin, until, as the Mayor said, "there is not a building in the city of any public nature that has not been neglected, reduced almost to absurdity." Not only have we a Hall of Records which is in danger of tumbling down, but we have our police and firemen lodged in buildings nearly all of which are literal death-traps, many of them being actually without fire-escapes; several of our court-rooms in which the City Magistrates sit are totally unfit for human habitation; of our charitable buildings on Hart's, Ward's, and Riker's Islands, as the Mayor said, "just one is fit to have a human being in it"; and the Tombs and Ludlow Street jail are in like condition. The Mayor estimates the necessary outlay in this direction alone at $3,000,000.

Some of the features of legislative reform reported to have received favorable consideration by the commission appointed by Gov. Morton are in successful operation in Connecticut legislative practice. It is the rule in that State that newspa-

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per publication must be made, in advance of the assembling of the Legislature, of an intention to introduce any measure which might affect a particular interest, such, for instance, as a bill for a street-railroad franchise. During the legislative session advance notices of committee hearings on all measures are printed in a legislative bulletin, copies of which are accessible to all parties in interest. A further obstacle to snap-judgment is the legislative rule that all bills, public or private, which are favorably reported, must be printed, and that final action on any such measure cannot be had, except with unanimous consent, until a printed copy of the measure has been on the desks of the members for at least one legislative day. In addition, there is a printed daily legislative calendar, giving a list of bills and resolutions reported from committees, with the nature of the report, and with an announcement whether the bill is ready for action; and, finally, there is no way in Connecticut legislative practice to smother a measure in committee, as all matters, no matter how insignificant or foolish, must be reported by the committees in some form at some time. While these Connecticut legislative practices by no means prevent legislative evils, they are efficient, in the hands of vigilant observers of legislative procedure, to prevent snap-judgment.

There is nothing odder "in our midst" to-day than "the Woman's International Maybrick Association." Mrs. Maybrick, who gives her name to it, is confined in an English jail on a conviction for murdering her husband. The sentence was commuted, Judge Fitzjames Stephen (who tried the case) says in the recently published life of him by his brother, to imprisonment for life, on account of his opinion that it was not clear that the husband died of the poison the wife administered to him; but die he did. A number of women in this country have heard an appeal from the conviction, and have overruled the Judge, the jury, and the English Home Secretary, and have pronounced her innocent, and have now been laboring for years to procure her release. She has some connection with the United States, through her mother or other relatives. Therefore they say she ought to be released on the demand of a properly constituted American Association. But trouble has now arisen in the association itself. Unfortunately Mrs. Maybrick had a lover, and some of the stricter members of the association are unwilling on this account to testify in one of their resolutions to her "womanly integrity." The controversy on this subject is fierce and interesting. One of her champions insists that she might have a lover and "yet be in thought and purpose a clean-souled woman, and therefore possessed of the same womanly integrity common to the best women of the world." How is this? Until it is settled by the society one way or the other, we predict that the brutal English will never let Mrs. Maybrick out of jail. It is very foolish to complicate the question of her guilt or innocence of murder with the other question of the "cleanness" of her wifely soul. But truth will win in the end.

The Canadian copyright muddle is straightening out, if we may trust Mr. Hall Caine's assurances. He asserted on Monday night at Ottawa that he, in his capacity as envoy extraordinary of the English Authors' Society, had succeeded in persuading the Canadian Government to withdraw the obnoxious act of 1889, still awaiting imperial sanction. That law, compelling, like our own, simultaneous and separate publication in order to secure copyright, will not again, Mr. Caine says, be offered to the Canadian Parliament or sent to England for approval. In its stead a new measure is to be introduced, allowing foreign authors to secure copyright in Canada at any time within sixty, or, in the discretion of the authorities, ninety days after publication. Moreover, the right to publish a non-copyright book can be exercised only under a Government license, such license to be given to but a single firm, while, pending its issuance, the author is to have yet another chance to apply for copyright. It does not appear whether separate publication is to be required, but this seems probable, as Mr. Caine speaks of "concessions" which had to be made on both sides. Even so, the compromise bill will be a distinct advance over the old one in the recognition of literary property, and will probably suffice to keep Canada within the terms of the Berne convention.

One of the most remarkable events ever known in the financial centres of Europe was the tumble in stocks in the Berlin and Vienna Bourses on the 8th and 9th of November. It came like thunder out of a clear sky, the very best dividend-paying securities falling from 5 to 20 points, with few buyers even at the decline. The panic was caused by the political crisis in Turkey. It began on the Vienna Bourse, which, being the nearest to the scene of the expected conflict, would suffer most in the event of a general reopening of the Eastern question. Austria is now next neighbor to Macedonia by virtue of her suzerainty of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and there is no knowing what might happen there or in Servia and Bulgaria, which are also her near neighbors. When the panic struck Vienna, she sought to unload on Berlin. The two bourses are in such close touch that any breath of excitement in the one is communicated to the other immediately. The fall in prices was not restricted to the securities common to both, but ranged over the entire list in varying degrees. After scenes of excitement during these two days unparalleled during the past twenty years, the two bourses righted themselves and found that there was no harm done except a rather reckless transfer of property between individuals, where the losses and gains were presumably equal. The affair shows faintly what would be the consequences of a real European conflict. It must make a profound impression on the capitalist class, prompting them to use their influence more than ever to preserve the peace. War means the ruin of thousands and tens of thousands of men before the armies are mobilized, and even before a formal declaration is made.

The Sultan's letter to Lord Salisbury was somewhat pathetic, as coming from probably the last ruler of a race which has made a great figure in the world. But it indicates absolute helplessness and despair. Of course his "word of honor" to carry out the reforms is of no value, as he has not the power, even if he has the will. Turkey is perishing for want of a decent official class more than anything else. The Mussulman peasantry are a stalwart, honest, simple-minded race, who make some of the best troops in the world when well led, but the supply of respectable officers for the army as well as for the civil service has been steadily declining for two centuries, and, as it declined, the boundaries of the empire have receded. The truth is, that the class from which public servants are usually drawn is in Turkey ruined by the harem. Its men are worn out or have their characters wrecked before they are twenty-five, and the sovereign is seldom much better than they are. Mahmud II., who exterminated the janizaries, is the only man of real vigor the Turks have had since they were defeated before Vienna. The others have been feeble and suspicious tyrants. Of late years, since Europe began to meddle in their affairs with a strong hand, they have been gentle, capricious, childish, and delicate. The present one is no better than his predecessors, in spite of Lord Beaconsfield's ludicrous eulogy on him after he brought back "peace with honor" from Berlin. Lord Salisbury made some remarks after reading the letter, which, however, held out no hope of an immediate interference. In the meantime there is but cold comfort for the Armenians who are being massacred, in the reflection that their fate is likely, in the long run, to bring down the vengeance of heaven on their oppressors. Lord Salisbury's philosophic observations on this subject at the Lord Mayor's dinner must have sounded humorous even to a man whom the Kurds were preparing for death. Considering the accounts which are coming in from Armenia, the general accuracy of which is not denied, the remedial movements of the fleets about Salonica are really droll. But the truth is, no power can do anything but threaten the wretched Sultan except Russia, and she is doubtless biding her time.

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THE COMING SESSION.

GEN. HENDERSON, the veteran Republican ex-Congressman from Illinois, is reported as saying that if any financial recommendations should be made by the President in his coming message, they ought to receive prompt consideration and action, even if they do not altogether correspond with Republican ideas of currency reform. "The country," he thought, "should be regarded first and the party afterwards." He thought, also, that it would be unwise and a mere waste of time to attempt tariff revision during this Congress.

In the same tone and temper as Mr. Henderson's remarks is an editorial article in the leading Republican organ of Iowa, the *State Register*, which says:

> "The Republicans will have a large majority in the House, where legislation of the most vital character must originate. The Senate is neither Republican nor Democratic. The Populists hold the balance of power there, and above either house of Congress stands a hostile President. Under the circumstances the Republican members must carefully guard their legislation. They must show to the country that they are wise, conservative, constructive, and patriotic in their legislation. . . . Republicans will serve their party best by serving their country first and above all."

These words of caution are directed against the tariff extremists and also against those who would precipitate the country into needless foreign complications. What the Republican party needs now is to avoid anything that can disturb the *status quo* as regards the tariff. If they are content to drift with the tide, their prospects of reaching the haven of their desires are bright.

There is one question, however, referred to by Gen. Henderson that will not wait for solution. It is the question of currency reform. The gold reserve is again running down, and it may soon reach a point where another bond issue will be necessary. To stand back and rail at the bankers, and shout that something else ought to be done, is of no more avail than to push with one's hands against a glacier or to blow with one's breath against a tornado. The Secretary of the Treasury has no option to do this thing or that thing. The claims upon him are various and imperative and ceaseless. They roll and beat against him like the waves on the shore, and they will continue to roll and beat against his successor, whoever he may be and whatever party he may belong to. The first and most important of these is the payment of the Government's demand notes. Other claims may be postponed for a little; these cannot wait at all. Failure to meet them is bankruptcy.

No political party and no public man dares to face national bankruptcy. If the Republicans expect to elect the President next year and to take the responsibility of the national finances, they are more concerned in an early adjustment of them on a sound basis than the Democrats are. Mr. Cleveland and Mr. Carlisle can go on as they have done. They can sell more bonds, they can offer a higher rate of interest, or they can sell bonds below par. The only thing they cannot do is to allow the Government to go to protest. The law under which the last bond sale was made is ample for the purpose, so long as the Government has any credit at all, and the President will surely execute it to the last day of his official term, the objurgations of blatherskite newspapers and Congressmen to the contrary notwithstanding. These will pass by him like the idle wind which he regards not.

The export of gold from New York last week aggregated about $7,500,000. It is worth while to note that this heavy movement is going on in the face of the most strenuous efforts of the exporting bankers to avert it. The syndicate-bond contract expired nearly three months ago, and with its expiration ended all obligation on the part of the contractors to continue last summer's expedients, and "protect the Treasury of the United States against the withdrawal of gold." Yet the contractors have voluntarily united, ever since October, in continuing exactly the policy of last summer, and straining their foreign credit to postpone actual gold shipments. To this there had to be some end, as to all artificial expedients based on credit, and within the last week several firms have been compelled to satisfy their requirements in the London discount markets by gold remittances. As to the cause of this situation, nobody has now any excuse for doubt. Mr. Harrison's Secretary of the Treasury saw and officially described this working of currency inflation, as far back as 1891; the business community had it forced on their attention in 1892, in 1893, and in 1894; and the most powerful financial combination ever formed to withstand a law of nature failed, in 1895, to stem the current. There is not to-day even the somewhat confusing factor of a European demand for gold, which intervened in 1892. Last week's shipments went out at the normal export level of exchange. The business men, the bankers, and the administration have alike done all that human power can do to avert or palliate the mischief. To-day the logic of the situation points inexorably to the law-making branch of Government.

To argue, as some people do, for "voluntary resumption of gold payments" by both the banks and the Treasury, is as visionary as the meaningless aphorism of Horace Greeley in the older greenback days, that "the way to resume is to resume." The banks have at intervals, during the last three years, coöperated to supply the Treasury with gold in exchange for notes, and the Treasury's own balances of to-day show how little use there was in such "reimbursement." We have no wish, however, to indulge in further controversy on the subject. Our regret is that anybody should turn aside from the serious problem of the hour to deal with makeshifts and nostrums which are utterly impracticable in the eyes of all experienced bankers, and which would not constitute a permanent remedy even if they were practicable.

The real question, and the one which ought to be taken up at the coming session, is how to get the Government out of the banking business altogether. It is now evident that a shortage of revenue is not the whole of the difficulty which confronts us. The Treasury has a very large cash balance—much larger than its average of the years preceding the passage of the Sherman act of 1890—yet that does not prevent the drain of gold. The element of distrust is still active. Want of confidence still shows its paralyzing effect, notwithstanding good crops, increased railroad earnings, and all the usual elements and factors of prosperous times. It cannot be too strongly impressed upon the Republican leaders in Congress that if they expect to win next year, they ought to do something now to restore confidence in the currency. If they do not, their victory will turn to ashes very soon thereafter.

SECRETARY CARLISLE'S SPEECH.

GRATIFYING as it was, of course, in our present extremity to have such a speech as Mr. Carlisle's before the New York Chamber of Commerce last week, from such a source, it is impossible, from one point of view, to read it without a certain honest shame. That a Secretary of the Treasury, not in Carácas or in Managua, but in the second greatest commercial city in the world, should have to gather its leading merchants around him and lay before them, with earnestness and eloquence, a string of elementary truths which in all other great commercial cities are as familiar and as well established as A B C, is surely a little humiliating. If Sir M. Hicks-Beach were to get the London merchants together and say, "My friends, the Government ought not to try to do a banking business; it ought not to keep a large body of demand notes afloat as legal tender in time of peace, because such notes drive away the gold in which they are payable; it is ridiculous to be borrowing gold in order to redeem them and then issue them again; it is ridiculous to call them money when they are really only promises to pay money; bankers are not public enemies, but necessary agents in the distribution and exchange of products; they are dependent for their prosperity on that of the community; it is the stability of our currency which makes London the financial centre of the world; the nature of the currency should not be settled at each election, and there should not be one kind when the Liberals are in office and another when the Tories are in office; 'cheap money' is a ridiculous phrase, and financial 'crazes' unsettle business"—how long would the audience listen to such preaching? About ten minutes. What would they say to the

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orator? They would say, "Sir Michael, we are astonished that you should summon us from our business to listen to such platitudes. You are anything but complimentary to our intelligence. Bye, bye."

Of course Mr. Carlisle's audience at the Chamber of Commerce dinner knew the speech was really not addressed to them, but to that immense public whose habitation begins about one hundred miles back from the coast and runs nearly to the Pacific, which pays so little attention to human experience that each generation has to learn everything about finance from the very foundations. A large portion of it never learn it without passing through two or three "crazes." In fact, to some of our people, "crazes" are nearly as necessary as measles or whooping-cough to children. They can never grasp financial principles till they have had one or two. And yet the leading and fundamental doctrines of finance are accessible to nearly every man, by merely questioning himself. Nearly all financial errors are based on the notion that the "other fellows" will be the easy victims of some sort of humbug. If a man will only ask himself, and answer honestly, the questions, "Which would I sooner have—gold or silver, or paper, for myself? Do I like to lend money without security that I can readily turn into money? Do I like to lend money without knowing exactly in what way my debt will be paid? Should I like to work for a salary the exact value of which at the end of a year would be uncertain?" a great deal of financial light will get into even the most darkened mind.

Secretary Carlisle exhibited a complete theoretical mastery of the subject he was called upon to discuss, and a facility of treatment which could not possibly be surpassed. It is seldom that those who have sat at dinner at Delmonico's for two hours, and have then listened to a speaker for half an hour, ask him to go on when he shows an inclination to stop, especially if the subject is the currency question. No tribute to the speaker's powers could be higher. Yet this is what happened when Mr. Carlisle was near the end of his discourse. Not only was the applause of the listeners hearty, but the demand that he should go on was nearly unanimous. It was possible to see, also, what chords struck by the speaker were most in unison with the thoughts of those whom he addressed.

First of all was the demand that the gold standard be preserved at all hazards, and that there be no more dodging and ducking, no more double-dealing in platforms and public speeches. Upon this point there was no dissent, but, on the contrary, an outburst of applause that was really vociferous. Not less hearty was the assent given to Mr. Carlisle's proposition that the Government was never intended to do a banking business, and has no machinery for doing it; that consequently it ought to abandon it at the first possible moment. Of course this means that the Government's legal-tender notes ought to be withdrawn, and that when once redeemed they ought to be cancelled and burned. That this was Mr. Carlisle's meaning he affirmed repeatedly and emphatically, and this opinion was emphatically approved by the audience. No particular method of accomplishing this result was sketched, but the general plan of leaving to the banks the business of furnishing a paper currency to the community was indicated, and this too met the views of the great majority of those present.

Now the question that comes to the mind of every thoughtful person, in view of what occurred at this notable dinner, is this: How will political parties divide on the question of taking the Government out of the banking business? Will the Republicans go one way and the Democrats another way, or will the line of cleavage run through both of them nearly in the centre? As there will certainly be differences of opinion, as there have been on the silver question during nearly twenty years, it is desirable that the division should run through both parties, so that neither of them should consider that its existence or its success depends upon the support of one or the other policy. The question ought to be treated as a business proposition in which Republicans and Democrats and men of no party are equally interested. There is nothing in the question which is necessarily more the concern of one party than of the other. It is a question of how the exchanges of the country, domestic and foreign, can be carried on with the least friction. It is hard to see how one party can have an interest in it different from that of the other, or how one can get the advantage of the other in dealing with it.

Yet it is to be apprehended that the Republicans will look upon the greenback as a "war measure," and will be inclined to resent any attempt to retire it as an attack upon one of the policies of the party. Senator Sherman must have thought that he was "striking the keynote" when he made his speech at Massillon a few weeks ago. Yet it is a fact in our history that the first vote taken by the Republicans after the close of the war on a financial question (December 18, 1865) was a vote to retire the greenbacks, and that it was nearly unanimous in Congress. It is a fact, also, that Secretary Chase, who has been called the Father of the Greenbacks, condemned them in the severest terms from the bench of the Supreme Court. His successors in office, Fessenden and McCulloch, were equally opposed to them, the former having voted against the legal-tender act in the first instance, and the latter having repeatedly urged their retirement after the close of the war. In short, more Republican authority can be found in opposition to Government legal-tender notes as an instrumentality of peace than in favor of them. The ground is open to any member of the party to take either side, and it is much to be hoped that reason and not war-cries may decide the question. It should be borne in mind, too, that whatever sacredness attaches to the greenback as a battle-scarred and blood-stained relic, no such reverence belongs to the later device called Sherman notes based on silver bullion, and likewise endowed with the legal-tender property. Nobody is committed in any way to that illegitimate brood whose issuance was the undoubted cause of the panic of 1893.

THE CONFIDENCES OF SENATOR SHERMAN.

THE morning newspapers of Thursday last contained interviews with Senator Sherman which are rather interesting by reason of his frank expression of opinion concerning contemporary statesmen. Among the persons thus favored are Garfield, Blaine, Harrison, Platt, Alger, and Elkins. These interviews read as though they had all been prepared from one copy, and had been afterwards trimmed by the editors to suit the columns of their respective newspapers. Thus, the stab under the fifth rib by which Blaine kept Sherman out of Garfield's cabinet is published in the *World* and *Tribune* in very nearly the same words, but the latter omits an unfavorable comment on Garfield that he had "a lack of moral steadfastness and depth of conviction." The essential facts in this matter, as stated in the interview, are that Mr. Sherman was Secretary of the Treasury under President Hayes, and was then engaged in refunding the national debt, and would have preferred to remain in that position until this work was finished, if not longer, and that Garfield was inclined to keep him there, but that Blaine made the suggestion to the new President that "it might be regarded as bad taste to select one of the Hayes cabinet without taking them all." Then the interview, as printed in the *Tribune*, continues:

> "This struck Garfield's plastic mind as right, and he spoke to me about it. I told him that I was not a candidate for the place of Secretary of the Treasury, and was perfectly satisfied to go to the Senate. This relieved him, but many people thought I ought to have remained at the head of the Treasury Department, at least until the refunding operation was finished. My election to the Senate was unanimous, but it was generally thought among influential Republicans until that time that I should remain at the Treasury, and that Charles Foster would have Garfield's seat in the Senate."

It was a matter of general surprise at the time that Mr. Sherman was not retained in the Treasury Department. So far from being a matter of embarrassment to Garfield to take one member of the Hayes cabinet and not to take all, it would have been the most natural thing in the world, because Garfield had headed the Sherman forces at the Chicago convention and had carried away the nomination for himself. This was an un-

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expected result to both of them. It led to some feeling or belief that Garfield had intrigued against Sherman—which was not true. Garfield was not an intriguing man. He was morally weak and unsteady, but he was not a plotter and schemer. Under the circumstances he was bound by the rules of comity and good taste, if nothing else, to offer Mr. Sherman the best place in his gift, which was the one he already occupied. No other member of the retiring cabinet had any such claim, or any claim at all. Instead of being an embarrassment to retain Mr. Sherman and not to retain the others, the embarrassment was all the other way. It was awkward to dispense with Mr. Sherman's services. It was very hard to find a man to take his place. This difficulty was finally solved by choosing Mr. Windom.

The plasticity of Garfield in this matter was not more characteristic than the adroitness of Blaine. The latter had been a candidate for the nomination which fell to Garfield, and "once a candidate always a candidate." This was true of both Blaine and Sherman. Blaine thought his future prospects would be improved by keeping Sherman out of the cabinet. Hence the cunning suggestion to Garfield that he might avoid embarrassment by not retaining Sherman as Secretary of the Treasury.

Among other confidences imparted by the Senator in his interview we are told that, at the convention of 1888, Steve Elkins "had in his pocket a written promise from Mr. Harrison engaging that ex-Senator Platt should control the federal patronage of New York State in case of his nomination and election. That may have had something to do with it [meaning the sudden turning of the vote of New York to Harrison]." How this came about is stated in the interview as follows:

"I was in close touch with everything that happened during the convention of 1888. The famous dinner of the New York delegation was given Saturday night, and the delegation then voted to swing their strength to my column. It is Mr. Miller's recollection that there was no change in this attitude until after the diners had separated. Some time during Sunday, Elkins and other of Harrison's friends persuaded ex-Senator Platt and other men of influence in the New York delegation to go to Harrison for one ballot only. No one thought that this would be the decisive ballot. After it they were to join my column, and this would have nominated me. Gen. Harrison's friends did such efficient work with other delegations that the convention took the matter into its own hands and nominated Harrison Monday morning."

It is a pretty serious charge to make against a public man of Mr. Harrison's prominence and dignity that he gave a promise in writing beforehand that certain offices should be bestowed in exchange for certain votes. We think that unless some denial of this charge is forthcoming, there will be an unsettling of public opinion in reference to Elder Harrison—more especially since the public offices in New York *were* bestowed in exactly the way that such a bargain implied. The interview goes on to say that it was Platt's ambition to be Secretary of the Treasury (horrible thought!), but "I do not believe that the convention engagement carried any explicit promise as to a cabinet place. It undoubtedly went no further than the distribution of federal places in New York, and in that respect President Harrison stood to his bargain. He never seriously considered Mr. Platt's demand for the cabinet place."

INTEROCEANIC CANALS.

THE college magazines are performing valuable service in affording the men who can speak with authority opportunities for correcting the insanities of a portion of the daily press. The premonitory symptoms of one of these insanities, known as the canal insanity (*furor canaliensis*), are already making their appearance, and they find the patient in a very weakened condition, owing to three previous attacks of a somewhat similar malady. An article, therefore, in the last *Yale Review*, from the pen of Prof. Theodore S. Woolsey, on precedents relating to interoceanic canals, will do much good, not only in clearing the brains of our own people, but in showing foreigners that we still keep the lamp of civilization trimmed and burning. He anticipates a canal or canals across the Central American Isthmus as a certainty in the near future, and the problem he treats in his article is how to make it "a sure passage-way for the flags of all nations, unblocked in war, secure from the vicissitudes of semi-tropical politics." What he undertakes to show is, that "the neutralization of such a canal, under the guarantee of the chief commercial Powers, is the status most in accordance with precedent and history and our own policy."

We have ourselves dealt with this question in three treaties, one with New Granada, in which we guarantee perfect neutrality to a line of railroad across the Isthmus; a second with Great Britain, in which we guarantee the neutrality of any Nicaragua canal that may hereafter be constructed; and a third with Nicaragua, guaranteeing the same thing. In all of these we commit ourselves unreservedly to the principle of neutrality to be guaranteed by all nations. Now, this principle happens to rest on the reason of the thing. A waterway furnishing communication between two oceans or great seas, like the French canal connecting the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, may run through the territory of a Power like France, which owns both ends of it and also the banks; and the right of such a Power to control it—that is, to open or close it, and impose conditions on the foreign use of it—cannot be contested. But when it runs through the territory of a Power like Egypt, or Nicaragua, which could not itself construct it, and could not keep it open for a week against any leading nation interested in obstructing it, it can obviously be made of use to the world at large only by a general agreement not to obstruct it or allow it to be obstructed; and it is only by being of use to the world at large that it can be made to pay for its construction, or pay its expenses, or prove a contribution to civilization.

A canal which would be exposed to attack in time of war not only would be a poor investment, but might be closed for years or totally destroyed. Hostile fleets might block either end—for the blockade of one end would close it—and obstructions might be sunk at its mouth, and in either case its usefulness would cease. It would take two enormous fleets to keep it open against any considerable hostile force; and, even if thus kept open, merchant vessels would not risk becoming objects of contention between men-of-war in narrow waters. These things were all considered when the Suez Canal was constructed through the territory of the Khedive, who was notoriously unable to protect it. Accordingly, in 1873 it was agreed between the European Powers that the canal should be open to all transports and ships of war. This agreement was embodied in a more amplified and detailed convention at Constantinople in 1887. The neutrality of the canal in peace and war is now absolutely guaranteed by all the great Powers.

There is a party among us which proposes that we shall depart from all these precedents and principles, first by constructing a canal in foreign territory with our own money; then by ousting the jurisdiction over it of the local sovereign, not for the purpose of placing it under the protection of the civilized world, but for the purpose of "controlling" it ourselves—that is, closing it when we please to all other nations, either by obstructing it or having fights about it at its termini. There are various influences behind this programme. One is mere Jingoism—that is, a vague desire that any interoceanic canal on this continent shall be our private property, even though running through foreign soil, as a contribution to national "greatness," as Jingoes understand the term, and as affording use for a large navy, which would have to do some fighting about it with foreigners. With this class the canal would serve its purpose, even though blocked to commerce, if it led to naval battles and newspaper "extras." Another is the commercial consideration, that it would call for such large expenditures as to make a high tariff seem reasonable and even necessary, and, though last not least, that it would be the beginning of a process of annexation of the "Dago" countries.

It is safe to take for granted, however, that no such programme will ever be carried out. In our day reasonableness generally triumphs in the long run, and a canal as something to fight about is not likely to stand discussion in a commercial community. No matter who constructs it, the desire to make it pay by means of tolls will be overwhelming, and this will be impossible unless it is secured against the risks of war. Nothing can be more

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vulnerable than a canal. If we were at war with any naval Power, and the canal were our property, we should never be able to send a ship or a man through it. A large load of stones would block it, and a large fleet at the eastern end would keep all ships out of it unless we conquered in a great naval fight, for which we are not likely to have sufficient force for twenty years. Moreover, even if we had as large a navy as the wildest Jingo dreams of, it would not be more than sufficient to watch and protect both ends of the canal against the fleets of a single European Power; and we should then have no ships left with which either to protect our own ports and coasts, or to do any bombarding in foreign parts. In truth, it is only the training we have had in debating with silver-men and Populists which enables us to argue about canals with Jingoes with even a semblance of seriousness. Their state of mind is not a new one, and, no matter what subject it plays round, it exhibits the same characteristics, and we can hardly better describe it than by calling it a mixture of childishness and unsoundness. When Mr. Crisp said that a nation of 70,000,000 could surely make silver circulate all over the world at 16 to 1 in gold, he displayed exactly the same mental peculiarities which make other men want a hundred-million-dollar canal in a foreign country, as a kind of national ornament, to be used solely to tempt the cupidity of foreigners, and thus form an excuse for giving them a sound thrashing.

"HEALERS" IN AN AGE OF SCIENCE.

"We love to deceive ourselves," said Goldsmith, and self-deception, resolute, invincible credulity, will seem to many the only words to be applied to the remarkable occurrences at Denver during the past few weeks. The personality of the "healer," Schlatter, appears to be unique, but his performances belong to a class of phenomena that have been often and thoroughly studied. No charge of fraud or imposture has been made against him; certainly his refusal of a $5,000 offer to go to St. Louis, in the interest of a real-estate speculation in that city, speaks loudly for his sincerity and purity of motive. His cures, however (many of which we suppose are indisputable), are of the well-known kind wrought by Lourdes water, the knuckle-bones of St. Anne, Christian Science, Voudouism, or Indian "big medicine" indifferently. How are we to account for the persistence of such cures and crazes in an age which we proudly call the age of science?

We think, to begin with, that the medical profession is in part at fault for not more frankly recognizing and publicly admitting the extraordinary influence of mental and spiritual states upon bodily conditions. If the common people were taught to consider and look for this influence in ordinary medical practice, they would not so often run agape after some quack or mystic who takes advantage of it, consciously or unconsciously, fraudulently or in good faith. Privately, of course, there is no lack, among well-educated physicians, of knowledge on this subject. They are eager to array on their side every occult, psychological ally in a fight with disease. Even if they are the blankest sceptics, they welcome prayer for a patient critically ill when they think it may serve, by his knowing of it, to rouse the desire or the will to live which may of itself mean life. They are willing to use quietly what may be called the humbug of their profession. When Fitzjames Stephen was vacillating in his choice of a calling in life, his bluff uncle told him that he would never succeed as a doctor because he had not enough humbug about him. A great deal of the kind of humbug meant is necessary to physicians treating neurotics and hypochondriacs, and the best of them often hit upon cures indistinguishable in essence from Schlatter's. But they ought, it seems to us, to preach it as well as practise it, and let their patients know that it is not all a question of drug and tissue, but of mysterious causes and effects in the borderland between mind and body.

Even were they to do so, however, we do not imagine for a moment that they could really touch the main difficulty, which is the inevitable slowness and distortion with which scientific ideas make their way into the popular mind. An English librarian some time ago made a rough sort of census among his readers and their neighbors, to try to find out how firm a grasp they had upon the leading conceptions of science. The result was rather appalling, but only what might have been expected. The practical results of science everybody complacently accepts, but its methods and presuppositions are quite another affair. Cross-examine a hundred men taken at random on the subject of the uniformity of nature, verification of a natural law, evidence and proof, and you would get very much the same kind of ideas that you would from a hundred children caught up out of their nurseries. Such difficulty in making a lodgment in the general mind is not confined to scientific ideas; religious ideas, for example, suffer from it as well. Christian theology has been battering away at the intellect of Europe for eighteen centuries, and in what a twisted shape for the most part has it got inside! Thomas Hardy asserts, and certainly has some evidence to show for it, that the peasantry of England are still rather pantheists or polytheists than Christians. If Christianity has thus been long on the way, and has been constantly surprised and baffled to find how much astray the popular understanding of it has gone, later-born science can scarce expect to have done more than scratch the surface as yet.

It might be thought that science would have a great advantage in being capable of clear and simple explanation. A very few experiments in physical causation ought, it may be said, to fix the idea of law beyond the possibility of removal. But this is doubtful. It is highly probable that clearness and simplicity are no recommendation to the average intelligence of mankind. It prefers the complex and mysterious. The doctrine that is clear and simple becomes at once suspect. There must be more in it than just *that*. Certainly, it is so with religious doctrine. A creed is never in so much danger as when it has just been made perfectly clear and reasonable. Look out then for what Leslie Stephen has called the process of death by explanation. Dr. Leonard W. Bacon made a wise remark when he said, in opposition to those who objected to the New Theology as a concession to the unregenerate heart, that precisely what the ungenerate heart liked best was doctrine that was old and tough. The simplicity and clearness of scientific notions, then, may not really help them to a general conquest. A love of mystery and confusion, a feeling that a great many strange things do happen, that you never can exactly tell, are among the dearest possessions of the race, and they will not be given up without a hard and long struggle.

The philosophically minded will be unable to resist the reflection that the "resolute credulity" (to adopt a phrase of Mr. Myers's) displayed so strikingly at Denver, casts a light backward upon many a puzzling page of history. What ecclesiastical miracle, for example, has such an overwhelming body of evidence for its genuineness as exists for Schlatter's cures? Yet the entire religious press, we believe, much to the credit of its good sense, says that his cures have nothing whatever miraculous or supernatural about them—this in spite of the fact that, on their face and in accordance with Schlatter's own belief and profession, they are miracles and nothing else. So much depends upon the seeing eye, upon the narrator's conception of what a natural law is, what evidence is. St. Francis Xavier wrote home in amazement of a natural wonder he saw in the island of Amboyna—a he-goat giving suck. He would never have believed it, he said, if he had not seen it with his own eyes. Yet the good saint was every day seeing and performing miracles of the most stupendous kind, and was writing about them in the utmost simplicity and good faith. At a violation, or apparent violation, of what even he saw to be a natural law, he balked; but disease and life and death were still, for him, the playthings of supernatural powers. So they doubtless are for the mass of people now in the world, though we are glad to say that St. Francis's successors put themselves, for the most part, on the side of those who would have been called in his century the sceptics and the heretics.

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RATIONAL SYMPATHY.

THE more rational sympathy is, the more effective it is. The sympathy of hysterical persons is seldom welcome and never useful to anybody. Therefore, in all our talk about the Armenian horrors, we should take pains to show that it emanates from sober-minded and well-informed people. Rationality, even in sorrow, is what distinguishes man from the animals, and one of the marks of rationality is a just estimate of the possible. Children never know what is possible, and one of the first signs of insanity is an ignoring of the limits of human powers. Some of our Jingo friends forgot all this some weeks ago when they wailed over the want of a navy to protect the Asiatic Christians against the Kurds and Turks, and there is still a loud call on our Government to do something or other in that direction. What this thing should be, no one seems exactly to know. The *Tribune* comes as near telling us as anybody, when it says that the President should show "genuine American feeling" and "should have something to say about the perils of our American missionaries in Turkey," and "give forth an American voice from the White House."

What would be the effect of any of these processes on the Turks, it is impossible to say without knowing more about their exact nature. As described here they simply mean more noise, whereas what we want is plans and specifications. If the Turk were frightened by infidel denunciations of him, he would long ago have taken refuge in the inner recesses of Tartary from which he issued a thousand years ago. The documents which the Armenians circulate among us here are so highly colored, vague, and extravagant in their diction that they fail of their purpose. We have always felt reluctant to quote them lest they should prejudice sober-minded people against a good cause. The horrors in Armenia have been so great that they will not bear rhetorical embellishment. Plain narrative, fortified if possible with proof, is all they call for. Senator Hoar, in a despatch to the President which the *Tribune* printed on Monday, offered to stand by the President in the Senate if he should go so far as "to determine to treat the persons who massacre the Armenians as pirates and common enemies of the human race." The Senator would relieve the anxiety of many persons about his mental condition if he would explain how the President is to "treat" persons in the interior of Asia Minor as ruffians of this description. To "treat" anybody as a "pirate" I must have some means, or a fair prospect, of getting at him. As long as he knows I cannot reach him, my epithets are wasted on him, and we fear all that the Kurds know of President Cleveland is that he is a noted Western robber, who is dissatisfied because he cannot "take a hand in the racket." The Senator's remedy is therefore clearly inadequate. The measure he suggests to the President is only seemingly desperate. In reality it would be quite harmless.

There are only two things which we can do with effect. One is what Mr. Terrell is doing, to address vigorous remonstrances to the Porte about the safety of our own citizens. These have apparently been effective thus far, but more by good luck than anything else. Threatening the Porte with our navy would be bad policy, because he knows that our navy cannot do anything more to him than the combined navies of Europe which are threatening him already. The Armenian trouble is hundreds of miles from the sea, in a roadless region, and his difficulty is that he has neither the money nor the men to restore permanent order—a fact which the Powers have probably already found out and are much puzzled by. The only one which can reach the scene of disorder with a land force is Russia, and she has apparently reasons of her own for refraining from interference at present. It would be far more rational for our Government and people to urge on Russia to march an army corps or even a division into Armenia, than to threaten the Porte or call the Kurds names. That would be the use of means adapted to the end in view, and, therefore, a human and rational process. Austria might intervene also by marching an army into Macedonia, but this would simply exert pressure on the wretched Sultan, who, as we have shown, is in Armenia powerless for all practical purposes. No one has yet suggested the despatch of our little army or of the Seventh Regiment to occupy Armenia and fight the Turks in the snow. When that proposal is made, we shall discuss it with the gravity which it merits.

The other thing we might do, and ought to do, is to send money, provisions, and clothing for the thousands of unhappy people, mainly, in all probability, women and children, who will have to face the terrible winter of Asia Minor without any protection against weather and hunger. If there were more of this going on, we could do with very much less "voicing" of indignation and less vituperation of the Turk. It is a feasible work and ought to be actively prosecuted. A fighting rôle on the Turkish question is not open to us. The humane rôle is. Jingoes ought to reconcile themselves to the fact that Providence has clearly not intended that we should have a hand in *all* fights, or it would have made all parts of the globe accessible to our navy. The ruffians and oppressors who carry on their atrocities in the interior of large continents are clearly meant to be chastised by other hands than ours.

THE GRIEVANCES OF IRELAND.

DUBLIN, November 12, 1895.

IN the *Nation* of October 17 "An Observer" exhibits a strange misconception of the Irish problem, a misconception which is common enough among both Englishmen and Irish Unionists who have paid little attention to the history of Irish affairs during this century.

The dead opposition of the English to all innovation in Ireland has certainly checked reforms and changes which would have been made in Ireland long ago in conformity with the wishes of the vast majority of the residents in Ireland. It has not, however, checked the desire for reform, and the statement that the opposition of English statesmen broke the power of O'Connell and terminated the Repeal agitation, if literally true, is strangely at variance with real facts. Every few years, since O'Connell's withdrawal from Irish politics and his death, have seen a renewal of the Repeal agitation in one form or another: the abortive rebellion of 1848, the Phœnix conspiracy, the Fenian movement, the Land League, the National Federation, have been agitations for Repeal under other names. In Parliament the Nationalist party, though shaken with internal divisions, is numerically as strong as ever. It votes and will vote solid for home rule, land reform, and financial justice between Great Britain and Ireland.

Ireland, no doubt, is weaker than she was, with a vastly diminished population, by her retrogression in wealth and prosperity compared with Great Britain; but the statement that Englishmen view Irish discontent with deep regret, and would make heavy sacrifices to render Irishmen loyal citizens of the empire, is contradicted both by the past and the present policy of the imperial Parliament. It is as difficult now as ever to get the attention of that assembly, overburdened as it is with imperial affairs, to Irish wants, grievances, and complaints; and but for the persistency, diligence, and close attendance of the Irish members, in spite of financial and other difficulties, Ireland would seldom be heard of in Parliament, much less would her wants receive attention. Promises of much needed reforms, of measures passed long since in Great Britain, made during the last forty years, remain unfulfilled and unlikely to be fulfilled. One illustration will suffice: the assimilation of the municipal franchise to that established in England. Successive governments have promised to deal with this matter for years; it would involve no sacrifices to Englishmen, yet a bill carried last session through three readings in the House of Commons was thrown out by the House of Lords on the entry of the present Tory Government into office. Our local governing bodies are consequently not on the democratic basis that "Observer" suggests for our parliamentary representation. The first remedy he proposes is the reduction of the number of Irish members, inasmuch as they are now in excess of the proportion Ireland is entitled to in respect of her diminished and Great Britain's increased population; but he omits to state that for the first seventy years of the century Ireland was under-represented on this principle.

"Observer's" second remedy is to extend the system of local government established in Great Britain to Ireland. This has long been asked for, and in 1891 the Conservatives took office pledged to pass such a measure for Ireland. They produced a bill, but one so unlike the English and Scotch acts, so limited in its scope and absurdly insufficient, that it was laughed out of the House of Commons, and has never been heard of since. An essential accompaniment of any local-government act for Ireland should be, according to "Observer," the "retention of power to check the aberra-

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tions of local authorities." To the English mind, all acts of administration by a popularly elected body, carrying out the wishes of its electors, are "aberrations" if not in accordance with English opinion. The first principle of democratic government, that the majority are to rule, cannot be allowed in Ireland. There, in politics as well as in local matters, the minority still rule. Only yesterday the present Chief Secretary, replying to a trades deputation, said he saw no reason why there should be any difference between the franchise law in England and Ireland, but he could not promise that the Government would bring in a bill to assimilate them.

As a solution of the education question, "Observer" would leave the system to be settled in accordance with the wishes of the Irish people; but this is just what successive British governments have consistently refused to do, with the result that in Ireland we are far behind the rest of the civilized world in our educational appliances, facilities, and teaching. The state of education in Ireland is a remarkable instance of the incompetence of the British Government in this country, and of its neglect of the primary wants of the people. In every civilized country, including Great Britain, primary education has long been compulsory, and supplied at the cost of the state, not of the individuals. It was only last year that a limited system of compulsion was introduced into Ireland, and the whole system of education, the books prescribed, and methods of training and paying teachers, are antiquated. Other governments have been able to compose or quench religious differences that presented obstacles to free and universal education, and have recognized, as one of the first duties of the state, the obligation of giving its citizens the elements of knowledge. But the British Government would neither grant the kind of education demanded by the Irish people nor enforce any other. The effect of the penal and disabling laws which made education by Catholics impossible has not yet disappeared, and though Great Britain has had absolute power for nearly a century to provide an efficient system of education in Ireland, she has not done so; and yet we find British statesmen, notably Mr. Chamberlain, reproaching this country for the number of illiterate voters on the franchise lists.

As to secondary and university education: confiscations, spoliation, and diversion of Catholic endowments, as well as the operation of the penal laws, have prevented the growth of such a system of schools and colleges as exists in England; but instead of liberally supplying a manifest want, grants of scanty funds, wrung from time to time from the British Parliament by Irish persistence, have been accompanied by conditions which robbed them of both grace and efficiency. The endowment of a Catholic University in a way to put Catholics on an equality with the Protestant community, which has had the rich endowments of Trinity College as its exclusive possession since the reign of Elizabeth, has been refused so often that there would be little grace in granting it now. Trinity College is now theoretically open to Catholics, but they are as unwilling to make use of an institution saturated with Protestantism, under Protestant government and teaching, as Protestants would be to send their sons to a college where Catholicism prevailed to the same extent.

"Observer" truly maintains that the root of Irish discontent is dissatisfaction with the system of land tenure which has lasted for centuries, and his remedy for this is that the tenants shall purchase the lands by means of loans from the state. Well, on the occasion of Mr. Gladstone's first land act of 1870, before the franchise was broadened in Ireland, this was a measure pressed upon Parliament by representative Irishmen, and opposed by the landlord class; it was one of the planks in the Land League platform in 1881, and was urged on the English Government by two landlord members of a royal commission appointed to inquire into Irish land tenure; the principle was at last adopted in 1885 in a tentative form, accompanied by the retention of so many legal difficulties that at the rate at which it has operated for the last eight years, it would take a century to transform the tenant farmers of Ireland into owners.

"Observer" thinks the British electors would approve of a bold and liberal scheme of land purchase even if it involved considerable expense. The British electorate and the Irish landlords combined in 1891 in refusing to accept a bold scheme proposed by Mr. Gladstone, and one that would have been so liberal to the landlords that it would have pressed both hardly and ruinously on the tenant purchasers who might have been compelled to avail of it. Between 1870 and 1880 the Irish landlords opposed every legislative proposal to facilitate the purchase of land by the tenant farmers; and so late as the session of 1894 they defeated the motion for a committee of inquiry into the working of the purchase acts. The landlord party are now engaged in passing resolutions deprecating any further land legislation, and in fact the only thing that they will agree to is the provision of ample public funds for the purchase of their estates when they wish to sell, but not for compulsory expropriations on terms that would be fair to the purchasers and safe to the state. At present they can practically name their own price, for Government provides them with a market by loans to the tenants; but instead of this involving any expense to the British taxpayer, every possible precaution has been taken to place any loss that may occur on the shoulders of the Irish taxpayers alone.

One of the most urgent questions affecting the welfare of Ireland is the adjustment of her financial relations with Great Britain. A Royal Commission inquiring into the subject has now been sitting for a year; it has taken a great deal of evidence, and collected a vast mass of figures and information. The claim of Ireland that she is overtaxed has been very fully established, not only by the figures collected by the Commission, but by the evidence of Dr. Giffen, one of the principal secretaries of the Board of Trade, an economist and statistician of the highest repute in England. His official position has given him unique advantages for studying the comparative wealth of different classes and groups of persons in the United Kingdom; his official reports and periodical addresses to the Statistical Society have long marked him out as the first authority on questions of finance, social and political economy. His evidence astounded and gave great offence to the English Treasury officials. So far from the English taxpayer making sacrifices or going to considerable expense for the purpose of quieting Irish discontent, the reverse has been the case. Ireland's discontent or disloyalty is largely due to her poverty, and one cause of that poverty has been excessive taxation. Ireland now contributes about one-twelfth of the imperial revenue. Dr. Giffen showed that vital statistics indicate (1) a general inferior condition of the inhabitants of Ireland; (2) a larger proportion of old and feeble persons, and a smaller proportion of persons in the prime of life. Labor statistics show (3) that, man for man, the incomes of the wage-earning classes in Ireland are little more than half of those in Great Britain, for there are comparatively few of the highly paid artisan class, and there is a great preponderance of the employments paid at a lower rate than others. (4.) As indicated by the income tax, Ireland's proportion of wealth is is about one-twenty fourth that of the United Kingdom, but, allowing for the stricter assessment prevalent in Ireland, and for a very considerable amount of property taxed in Ireland but owned and the income spent in England, Ireland's real resources are very much less than the income-tax figures show. (5.) Taking the death duties as a standard, Ireland's proportion is about the same as that shown by the income tax, but this requires adjustment for absentee property, for successions being more frequent in Ireland owing to the greater number of aged persons, and for the fact that, property in Ireland selling for a less number of years' purchase than in Great Britain, the succession duty, levied heretofore on the annual value, is a larger part of the capital value than in Great Britain. (6.) Ireland is rapidly losing ground as compared with Great Britain in wealth and prosperity. (7.) A very large amount of British wealth engaged in commerce escapes taxation, but this is not the case in Ireland. In these circumstances the resources of Ireland as compared with those of Great Britain would be denoted by a fraction between one-fortieth and one fiftieth—that is, Ireland's contribution to the imperial revenue should be about two instead of eight millions.

In view of these facts and figures it is highly absurd to speak of Great Britain's liberality or generosity to Ireland. The excess of Irish taxation over what would be fair between the two countries, and the absentee rental remitted annually from Ireland, have the same financial effect as a perpetual bad harvest, or as if the entire potato crop were lost, or the whole salable produce of the live stock of the country were carried away without return. Ireland, a purely agricultural and pastoral country, without foreign commerce, and without industries and manufactures, has to contribute to the protection and extension of Great Britain's vast commercial system and to her costly foreign policy, and she gets no return for her contributions. Her own struggle is against want, periodical famines, and chronic distress; her interests lie in the development of her own resources. In 1886 Dr. Giffen stated that "the whole taxable income of Ireland was absorbed by the state, and that under such conditions there could be little accumulation in Ireland:" The removal of the causes of poverty in Ireland and the development of her internal resources are as legitimate purposes for imperial expenditure without charge as the development of the empire and the many wars in which England engages for commercial reasons. Ireland's needs are, however, dealt with by loans on which interest is charged at rates that clearly give a profit to the British Treasury. During the last fifty years loans have been made, almost annually, at one time to keep the Irish quiet, at another to keep them alive, with the result that the local loans from the imperial exchequer to Ireland amount to twenty millions sterling, on which about 3½ per cent. interest is paid. A large part of this money has been unremuneratively spent, and it has added very much to the burden of taxation in Ire-

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land. The relief of famine and distress by means of loans is like charging a starving man interest on the breakfast that charity supplies him with. The breakfast eaten, he is poorer than ever, for he is in debt. Yet these annual famine and distress loans made from funds supplied by Ireland to the imperial Treasury are paraded as instances of British liberality to Ireland.

In some cases they are secured to the British Treasury on the local rates, in others on the property of the disestablished Episcopal Church—advantage was taken of the disestablishment act to place on the Church property a number of charges that had before been paid out of the imperial revenue, and to add from time to time other charges for famine, relief of distress, and education that would otherwise have fallen on the imperial revenue. The result has been that since 1870 the entire revenue of the Church fund, about half a million sterling, has been remitted to the British Treasury. Other loans, amounting to over eight millions sterling, bring in interest to the Treasury at a rate somewhat over 3⅛ per cent., and, with 2½ per cent. consols at 105, are a very profitable investment for the Treasury.

The financial relations between the two countries are those rather of a usurer and a needy borrower than of a mother or a sister country. Irish deposits in the savings banks amount to about £7,000,000; the depositors receive 2½ per cent. interest, and the funds are lent back to Ireland by the Treasury at not less than 3⅛ per cent. Ireland is reproached by the British Pharisee with want of self-reliance, with expecting Government to do everything; but her entire taxable revenue is captured by the imperial Government, and cannot be spent except by permission of Parliament. The waste and misapplication of public money could not be worse under the most corrupt Irish Government conceivable. Municipal and local enterprise is practically impossible, for every scheme must pass through Parliament at Westminster, where the expenses of passing an Irish "private bill" are so great as to be prohibitive.

The Unionist party, with their enormous majority, have now an unexampled chance of showing whether they have any policy beyond that of instituting a royal residence in Ireland and endowing a Catholic university—two favorite panaceas of the Conservatives. It is the wants of the masses, not of the classes, that require attention, and a royal residence will not put an end to famine, poverty, and emigration, nor secure to the Irish peasants the fruits of their expenditure on their farms, nor lighten the burden of taxation. Many Nationalists are ready to hope for wiser and better measures from a strong Conservative than a weak Liberal Government.

AN IRISHMAN.

THE SOUVENIRS OF GENERAL LEJEUNE.—II.

PARIS, November 7, 1895.

THE Memoirs of General Lejeune will have a special interest for the historians of the war of the Spanish Peninsula. He enters, concerning Spain, into more minute details than he did in the first part of his work. We left him at the time when Napoleon, having himself conducted a victorious campaign, and having heard at Valladolid of the departure of the English, who had embarked at Corunna, left his orders with the army and returned to Paris. Before leaving Valladolid, Lejeune received from the hands of the Emperor a duplicate of the orders which he was sending to Marshal Lannes. He gave Lannes the command of the army which was besieging Saragossa, and placed Lejeune momentarily under his orders as officer of engineers, with General Lacoste, also an engineer. Lejeune went through Burgos, crossed the Ebro at Miranda, and arrived before Saragossa. The famous siege was beginning, and Lejeune gives us an almost daily account of the investment, which will always be remembered among the most extraordinary feats of Spanish patriotism. The chapter on the siege and capture of Saragossa would alone secure the success of the Memoirs, ill-composed as they are in many parts, ill-written, incomplete, and sometimes inaccurate. It is clear that Lejeune took more pains with this chapter than he did with the others; he remembered the "quorum pars magna fui." As an officer of engineers, he was always in the forefront of the attack and in perpetual danger.

Command of the operations of the siege was taken on the 29th of December by Junot, Duke of Abrantès, but the effective command was in the hands of the general of engineers, Lacoste, who opened the first parallel in the night of December 29-30. On the 1st of January, 1809, the batteries of the town began to play on the French works, which were vigorously pushed forward by 3,000 men. As is well known, Palafox commanded in the town, but he was obliged to follow the dictates of a junta composed of the most energetic inhabitants. There were two monks in this junta, Father Basilio and Father Consolacion, and all over the town the priests and the monks were in the first ranks of the combatants. "Few days passed," says Lejeune, "that the junta did not order those who were accused of weakness and of a desire to capitulate to be hanged. Palafox, who was as humane as he was brave, disliked this system of terror, but he was obliged to follow the law of these bloodthirsty monks." During the whole siege the women were organized in battalions; they carried food and munitions, took care of the wounded, made cartridges, and finally fought on the ramparts and in the convents (which were taken one by one, by assault) like men. Among the women who set an example of devotion and courage was the young and handsome Countess Burida. This valiant Amazon made all the women swear that they would rather die with their children than surrender. The 'Maid of Saragossa' did not exist merely in the imagination of Byron. Lejeune speaks of her with admiration.

Marshal Lannes came to take the place of Junot on the 22d of January. He sent a young officer, Saint-Marc, to parley with Palafox, and offer him honorable terms of capitulation. Saint-Marc was conducted to the palace of the Inquisition, and left for an hour in a room where there was nothing on black walls but a Christ painted by Velasquez. Palafox received the letter of Lannes, and told Saint-Marc that the population had resolved to be buried under the ruins of the city. The siege was continued with much vigor on both sides; mines and countermines were made under the walls, under the houses, the streets, the great convents, which became so many fortresses. After the assault on the convent of the Trinitarians, "a priest vaunted himself on having killed with his own hand seventeen Frenchmen. It was this same San-Jago Saas, a Carmelite. Now again, sword in hand, with bare arms and his shirt up to his shoulders, his gown covered with blood from head to foot, this fanatic went among the ranks and said to each: 'Follow my example, and not one of them will remain.'" On this same day, the "Maid of Saragossa," Agustina, fought among the gunners and fired guns. This assault cost the French only three hundred men. Lejeune pays a high tribute of admiration to our *soldats du génie*, a reputation which was well sustained afterwards at Sebastopol. These soldiers form only two regiments, but receive a special instruction in mining and in the construction of bridges. The regiments of the *génie* have very glorious traditions.

"The miner," says Lejeune, "is admirable for the resignation and coolness with which he faces fatigue and dangers. While he quietly makes a tomb for the miners of the enemy, he is often separated from them by only a short interval. When he hears the faint noise, or feels the slight movement which tells him that by his side somebody is working for his destruction, he is not then standing upright, he cannot defy his adversary with a proud look, the eyes of the army are not fixed on him, they do not animate his courage or double his power; he is alone, often flat on the earth, or doubled up, and often he succumbs to asphyxia. What Bayard, what Murat would not feel his courage cool down if he had, for whole days, to subject it to contact with these cold subterranean galleries? . . . The disinterestedness of these soldiers is equal to their bravery. I saw some in this memorable siege who, having worked their way under the earth, happened to break with their picks antique vases full of gold, silver, bronze coin, which the Carthaginians, the Romans, the Arabs had buried in calamitous times. The sight of the metal, shining in the light of the miner's lamp, did not stop his work or excite his cupidity; he contented himself with handing the coin to the miner who was behind him, saying simply: 'Take this; hand the Peru ["Pérou," the bonanza] to the captain; it will interest him.' The captain was a numismatist."

One day the convent of the Daughters of Jerusalem was taken by assault after the explosion of a mine.

"I cannot forget," writes Lejeune, "the effect produced on me by the interior of this convent, which I saw through a cloud of dust and smoke. The cells of the nuns, those asylums of peace and of prayer, had become the theatre of war. The assailants rushed among the symbols of piety, the amulets, the enormous chaplets, the straw carpets which were the only beds of those austere women. On the pavement of their oratories I met everywhere under my feet the instruments of flagellation, iron scourges with points, which testified to their severe habits, or needlework which they were making for the poor, and which testified to the charity of their order. Some of them, surprised in their flight or kept among the fighting women of the town, remained with them. At our approach, we saw them taken on the altars, the objects of their adoration, to save them from profanation; and these holy women bore in their arms only the crucifixes and the images of the Saviour. . . . They had in their little chapels pretty figures of the infant Jesus, with snow-white lambs, adorned with ribbons. . . . On these flowers, this moss, of the cradles of Jesus, wounded soldiers were falling, and the blood of the dying ran on the immortelles, the crowns of roses, and the azure ribbons."

The courage of the populace never wavered, but the day came when starvation did its work and resistance became impossible. The scenes described by Lejeune are truly terrific. Typhus was raging in the city. After a short armistice, a capitulation was signed; on the 21st of February all the exterior posts of the town were occupied by the French, and, in accordance with the terms of the capitulation, the Spanish troops with their arms and flags came out and marched in order before the French army, which was in battle array along the Ebro. Marshal Lannes had allowed the garrison the honors of war. Thirteen thousand Spaniards gave up their arms in front of

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the French army; the officers kept their arms and the soldiers their knapsacks. Though the Spaniards were in rags and looked worn with hunger and fatigue, they kept a proud look; and Lejeune, who was an artist, admired their attitude. They wore colored sashes round their waists; their large sombreros had plumes of black cock or of vulture; a brown mantle was thrown picturesquely over the varied costumes of the men of Aragon, of Catalonia, of Valencia, and gave an air of grace and almost of elegance to the torn and tattered clothes which covered so many living spectres.

Lejeune took to Napoleon the news of the surrender of Saragossa. He started on horseback alone for Bayonne, crossing a country full of guerillas, and arrived at the Tuileries in six days.

"I found the Emperor sitting with a child three years old on his knees, near a table, and eating the same breakfast as the child. . . . The Emperor asked many questions, and expressed the most complimentary regrets at the death of his aide de-camp, Gen. Lacoste. He even charged me to carry words of consolation to his widow, and to let her know that she would continue to receive the allowance of 50,000 francs a year which he gave to her husband. During our conversation, the Emperor freely caressed the child, who was the eldest son of his brother Louis, King of Holland, the husband of Hortense de Beauharnais, daughter of the Empress Josephine. . . . After his frugal repast, the Emperor, as was usual with him, took some coffee without sugar, and the child, who, with his pretty little arms, had taken the cup and drunk some coffee, was astonished at the bitterness of the liquor, made a grimace, and pushed away the cup. The Emperor laughed and said these words, which have remained in my memory: 'Ah! your education is not yet complete, since you cannot dissimulate.'"

The Emperor made Lejeune Colonel of Engineers, and Lejeune, who was on Napoleon's staff, spent some time enjoying the pleasures of the Court. But he had soon to prepare himself for another campaign. War with Austria was imminent, and Lejeune was occupied in the cabinet of Prince Berthier in marking on maps with pins all the positions of the French troops in Germany, the future positions of the troops and magazines in Tyrol, in Italy, in Bavaria. He seems to have had a great taste for what the Germans now call "Kriegsspiel." Lejeune followed Berthier to Metz and Strasbourg, and to Bavaria; the Emperor arrived on the 18th of April at Donauwerth, and the campaign of 1809 began. The details of this campaign are given at some length by Lejeune, and sometimes the reader wishes that the horrors of war were not so minutely described. I would not recommend a highly nervous person to read how Ebersberg was stormed, and how through narrow streets the soldiers of Masséna had to go with horses and guns over hundreds of wounded Frenchmen and Austrians lying on the pavement. The horrors of the battle of Ebersberg were such that "it was with a broken heart that the Emperor spent the night, in gardens on the heights of Ebersberg, in the midst of his soldiers, like a father who, in his trouble, can find no solace but in his family."

Here is, however, a curious account, which shows that the Emperor preserved all his coolness. In the evening of this bloody fight,

"Napoleon sent for Count Daru, and Maret, Duke of Bassano, secretaries of state, who had followed him from the beginning of the campaign. The Emperor and these two gentlemen were sitting on woodpiles, with a few candles placed on drums, and writing on their knees. The secretaries offered for the signature of the Emperor decrees which interested the whole of Europe, for the construction of road, canals, hospitals, etc. It was eleven o'clock when Napoleon, after having given his orders for the next day to the Prince major-general, told Daru and Bassano to open their portfolios, and at two o'clock in the morning they were still at work."

Lejeune's volume closes with the operations which ended in the taking of Vienna and the great battles of Essling and Wagram. Lejeune, as officer of engineers, played a great part in the construction of the bridges which connected the two banks of the Danube. Will there be a second volume of these memoirs, which, as they are imperfect, will take a secondary place in the Napoleonic literature of the day? The editor has not chosen to inform us. The memoirs, I know for certain, do not end at Wagram, and it is to be hoped that their publication will be continued.

Correspondence.

THE VENEZUELAN CONTROVERSY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As pertinent to the discussion of "The Law of the Venezuelan Case," I send you the following extract from Creasy's 'First Platform of International Law,' pp. 216–218:

"Questions as to the extent of territory which is gained by the occupation of a part thereof have often arisen and have proved sometimes hard of solution. . . . Three rules on this subject were propounded and maintained by the Commissioners of the United States in the negotiations conducted by them in 1817 with the Commissioners of Spain in regard to the western boundary of Louisiana. These principles, say the Commissioners, have been adopted in practice by the European Powers as applicable to the discoveries and acquisitions made in the New World. They are few, simple, and intelligible, and at the same time are founded in strict justice.

"(1.) When any European nation takes possession of any extent of seacoast, that possession is understood as extending into the interior country to the sources of the rivers emptying themselves within that coast, to all their branches and to the country they cover, and to give it a right in exclusion of all other nations to the same.

"(2.) Whenever one European nation makes a discovery and takes possession of any part of that continent, and another afterwards does the same at some distance from it, where the boundary between them is not determined by the principle above mentioned the middle distance becomes such of course."

Of like tenor are Secretary Calhoun's words to Mr. Pakenham (Wharton's Digest, vol. i., p. 6): ". . . So likewise, in the case of a river, it has been usual to extend the claim of territory to the entire region drained by it; more especially in the case of a discovery and settlement at the river's mouth." Moreover, in 1872, Secretary Fish wrote to Mr. Preston: "Discovery alone is not enough to give dominion and jurisdiction. . . . Such discovery must be followed by possession." Now if it be true, as alleged, that for more than two centuries the Dutch and British have had permanent settlements at the mouth of the Essequibo, and that in the region drained by that stream the Venezuelans have had no such settlements, there would seem to be very little room for contention. J.

Fort Wayne, Ind., November 23, 1895.

THE GETTYSBURG SPEECH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. H. Sidney Everett's recent publication in the N. Y. *Tribune* of a copy, from Mr. Edward Everett's autograph letter-book, of a note written under date of November 20, 1863, to Mr. Lincoln, expressing admiration of the thoughts uttered "with such eloquence and simplicity" at Gettysburg, brings to my mind a conversation I held with Vice-President Wilson, with whom I enjoyed an intimate acquaintance at Natick, Mass., where I resided nine years. As we rode on the railway train to Boston, one day, Mr. Wilson told me with enthusiasm that Mr. Everett at Gettysburg gave his hand to Mr. Lincoln at the conclusion of the speech of the latter, saying, "Mr. President, you have said more in a few minutes than I have in my whole oration." I distinctly understood Mr. Wilson to say that he was at Gettysburg on that occasion, and that he sat near Mr. Everett and Mr. Lincoln, and heard the remarks of the former addressed to the President. Mr. Wilson's intimacy with Mr. Lincoln at that period makes it impossible for me to regard his statement to me as mere hearsay, or the fact itself as unhistoric.

The letter of Mr. Edward Everett to Mr. Lincoln which Mr. H. Sidney Everett has published, confirmed by the statement made to me by Mr. Wilson, would seem to render Mr. Lamon's declaration that Mr. Everett and Mr. Seward expressed disappointment after Mr. Lincoln's speech, not easy to explain. The impression derived by Marshal Lamon, who was also present on that day, remains for me, at least, an insoluble enigma.

Yours truly, Charles Mellen Tyler.

Cornell University,
Ithaca, N. Y., November 20, 1895.

"COLLEGE" AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Matthews (*Nation*, Nov. 14) might rightly attribute carelessness to any one who should assert that the word college for a "single building or group of buildings," in the sense of his article and of all but one of his quotations, is not recognized by the dictionaries. This meaning of the word has been recorded since Johnson's time at least. I referred to the use mentioned in Mr. Brown's first letter (*Nation*, Oct. 24) as a name in early times for separate buildings at Harvard College. Besides, Mr. Matthews will surely do me the justice to believe that, with an American's inbred reverence for the dictionary, I had at least examined each of the works to which I referred. But I more gladly return to the discussion, because the quotations which Mr. Matthews makes might seem to overthrow both the statement which he attributes to me and that which I wish to enforce.

The word college, as applied in any way to college buildings, has at least three distinct senses. These are:

(1.) The building occupied by a college.

(2.) The group of buildings so occupied.

(3.) One of a group of buildings used by a college or university.

The meanings under one and two are common to England and America. The third meaning is the one I suggested as probably American, though not recognized by lexicographers.

My reason for believing this use of "college" an Americanism is, that it is not recorded by Johnson, writing a century and more ago, nor by the 'Oxford Dictionary' now under way. Johnson's definition is, "3. The house in which the collegians reside," and that of the 'Oxford Dictionary,' "5. The building, or set of buildings, occupied by such a society or institution." Of course it is dangerous for an American to say that a particular word, or meaning of a word, which seems to be used in this country exclu-

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sively, may not be found in England. But in addition to the testimony of the dictionaries, Oxford and Cambridge men have assured me that they have never heard the word so used in the mother country. The English term is "hall," which is also common in America.

As to our own lexicographers, they might seem at first to recognize the use in question, and I thought of referring more explicitly to them in my first communication. The definitions of "college," so far as they relate to buildings, are as follows:

Worcester (1846): "A house or edifice appropriated to the use of a college or literary institution."

Webster (1847): "3. An establishment or edifice for students who are acquiring the languages and sciences."

International: 3. "A building, or number of buildings, used by a college."

Century: 2 (a). "The institution, or house, founded for the accommodation of such an association. . . . (e). an edifice occupied by a college."

These definitions, it will be seen, cover meanings 1 and 2 above. It may be said that the words "a building" in the 'International' cover at the same time meanings 1 and 3, but I am not willing to infer that the expression is used in this double sense. Nor can I believe, in the light of the other definitions, that 'Century' 2 (e) is intended to cover this distinctly American usage. It seems reasonable to suppose that, if the lexicographer had intended the latter meaning, he would probably have indicated the American, as distinct from British, usage.

As to Mr. Brown's demurrer to my suggestion of American and dialectal origin, let me say that I used the word "dialectal" with no sense of opprobrium. The change in usage was quite natural, and was made easier, doubtless, by the fact that early Harvard resembled an English college in many ways. Yet, when the word "college" was applied at Harvard or elsewhere to a second building, not a "college" in the English sense, the usage seems to me for the time dialectal. Later it was generally adopted in America, so that "college" may now be applied to almost any building belonging to an educational institution, from a dormitory to a recitation hall or laboratory.

There is only one other possibility, so far as I can see. It may be found that the particular use of "college" to which I have called attention is owing, like so many other so-called Americanisms, to the retention of an older usage, since lost in England. If this can be shown, it will be in itself an important contribution to lexicography.

Whether this use of "college" has been felt to be dialectal or not, the word has been displaced in many institutions by the word "hall." Mr. Brown has shown that the change took place at Harvard in the latter part of the last century. A similar change has been made, within fifteen years, at the college to which I referred in my first communication. At other institutions the word "college" in the American sense remains in excellent use, as it bids fair to do for many years to come. OLIVER FARRAR EMERSON.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, November 23, 1895.

"OLD NORTH" AT PRINCETON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "H.," in his note on "College" (*Nation*, p. 346), errs in saying that the Old North (officially Nassau Hall) of 1860 at Princeton "was only four years old, having been rebuilt after a destructive fire." Old North was gutted by fire March 6, 1803, and again March 10, 1855; but the walls that were erected in 1754–'55, and withstood Revolutionary cannon, are intact. The reconstruction of 1855–'56 involved a new cupola, terminal stairways in exterior towers, an enlargement of what had been the original chapel, and of course a new roof. But the student of 1760 could have identified his unaltered window in 1860, and the gray stones of the middle of the eighteenth century remain in place at the close of the nineteenth.

W.

DENVER, November 18, 1895.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co. take a forward step in adding 'Robinson Crusoe' and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' to their Riverside Literature Series (Nos. 87, 88). This means that school libraries and classes may be equipped at a small cost with these two works, which are fitly bracketed together as among the most widely read and translated in the whole range of literature. A Swedish translation of 'Uncle Tom' ('Onkel Toms Stuga'), by the way, has just begun publication in parts at Göteborg by Torsten Hedlund. There will be more than 100 original illustrations.

Lamson, Wolfe & Co., Boston, have in press 'Ralph Waldo Emerson'—two unpublished essays, with an introduction by Edward Everett Hale; 'A Man without a City,' by the author of 'A Man without a Country'; 'Earth's Enigmas, and Other Stories' and 'A History of Canada,' by C. G. D. Roberts; 'The Goldfish of Gran Chimu, and Other Peruvian Tales,' by Charles F. Lummis; and a translation, by Charles Edward Amory Winslow, of Sudermann's four-act play, "Magda."

Lee & Shepard are to publish 'Old Boston,' reproductions in half-tone of Henry R. Blaney's etchings of Boston buildings, with descriptive text; and 'The History of the Hutchinson Family [of Singers],' by the sole survivor, John Wallace Hutchinson, with a preface by Frederick Douglass, written just before his death.

Montague Marks will publish early in December, from the office of the *Art Amateur*, No. 23 Union Square, New York, the first of a series of "Art Amateur Handbooks," namely, the 'Book of the China Painter,' by Mrs. L. Vance-Phillips, illustrated with 150 black-and-white drawings in the text and six colored plates. We understand that Mr. Marks purposes in the course of next year very considerably to extend his operations in the book-publishing line, especially in the direction of works on art and cognate subjects.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in hand a new '*Cyclopædia of Architecture in Italy, Greece, and the Levant*'; 'The Mediterranean Trip,' a guide-book by Noah Brooks; Dr. Corrado Ricci's 'Correggio; his Life, his Friends, and his Time'; 'Domesticated Animals,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; 'The Poor in the Great Cities,' by a variety of authors; and 'Window and Parlor-Gardening,' by N. Jönssen Rose.

'The Elements of Physics,' in three small volumes, by Edward L. Nichols and William S. Franklin, will begin to be issued in January by Macmillan & Co.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish immediately 'Annals of Westminster Abbey,' by E. T. Bradley (Mrs. Murray Smith); with an introduction by her father, Dean Bradley. It will contain nearly two hundred illustrations by W. Hatherell, R.I., and H. M. Paget.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce 'A Scientific Demonstration of the Future Life,' by Thomson Jay Hudson; and 'Songs, Chiefly from the German,' by Bishop Spalding.

Mr. J. E. P. Wallis, barrister-at-law, England, is engaged upon a 'History of Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies.' Beginning with the infant Legislature of the old colony of Virginia, the author will work down to the colonial constitutions of the Victorian era. Mr. Wallis edits the State Trials published by the British Government, and is a lecturer at the Inns of Court, London. He will shortly read a paper before the Royal Historical Society upon "The Origins of Parliamentary Institutions in America," one of a series of papers apropos of the 600th anniversary of the meeting of Parliament on the 27th of November, 1295, which historians concur in regarding as the foundation of the regularized representation of the Commons of England in Parliament.

The authorities of the British Museum have decided to commemorate the 300th anniversary of Sir Walter Raleigh's voyage to Guiana in 1595. To that end an exhibition will be held in the King's Library (where the Gibbon-commemoration took place) of books, maps, portraits, and prints relating to the voyage and those who took part in it, as well as to the voyages of Leigh, Harcourt, and other early English colonizers of Guiana.

The Council of the Royal Historical Society of England have nominated for election at the next general meeting of the Society, as corresponding members, the following residents of the New World: Prof. J. F. Jameson (Providence), Prof. W. J. Ashley (Harvard), Dr. C. Gross (Harvard), and the Hon. N. Darnell Davis, C.M.G., of British Guiana.

Harper & Bros. publish, in a small volume, Dr. Charles Waldstein's inaugural lecture as Slade Professor at Cambridge on 'The Study of Art in Universities.' This lecture, delivered on June 10 last, is a strong plea for the fuller study of the theory and history of art, not with any practical end of producing artists or even amateurs of art, but in the true university spirit of pure love of knowledge and as an important branch of general philosophy and history. Incidentally, Dr. Waldstein also maintains that, while universities should encourage the study of art, artists should study in universities. On this latter question there is a great deal to be said. There is doubtless often a lamentable lack of general culture in the artist, and it is a fair subject of discussion how far this lack affects the quality of his art. But, as it is said that no one ever mastered the violin who began to play it after his seventh year, so it is doubtful if any one ever mastered painting who began the serious study of his profession so late as would be implied in having first taken a university course. Art study is in itself a means of culture, and perhaps that study and what he can gather by general reading must remain the education of the average artist.

'Picture Posters,' by Charles Hiatt (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), is, as the title-page describes it, "a short history of the illustrated placard, with many reproductions of the most artistic examples in all countries." It gives all the essential facts as to the development of this form of decorative art and its present wonderful vogue, and a marvellously complete set of illustrations (over a hundred and fifty in num-

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ber), which seem to represent almost every artist who has done anything notable in that line, and to contain almost every specially notable example. The book should be a treasure to the devotees of the latest collecting fad. The last chapter even gives the latest "quotations" of certain rarities or desirabilities.

From the same London firm we have 'A Guide to the Paintings of Venice,' by Karl Károly, similar in plan to the same author's 'Guide to the Paintings of Florence.' It is of a handy size to fit the traveller's pocket, and contains a vast deal of information about the pictures themselves as well as chronological tables, an outline of Venetian history, lives of the principal painters, etc., etc. Many and opposing criticisms are quoted from various sources, and occasionally the author gives his own opinion, which is frequently saner than that of the eminent writers he quotes. There are also a few fairly well-executed illustrations. It is a pity that an alphabetical list of painters, with the whereabouts of all their works in Venice, is not given for the assistance of those desiring to make a special study of any one artist. It is impossible to examine into the accuracy of so many detailed statements as a work of this kind contains, but, in a somewhat cursory perusal, we have noticed only one error. It is stated on page 112 that the St. Christopher "is the only remaining fresco by Titian." If this statement were qualified by the words "in Venice," it would be true, but Mr. Károly must have forgotten the frescoes by Titian in the Scuola del Santo at Padua. Or has recent criticism changed the attribution of these pictures as it has that of so many others? In that case it would have been well to note the fact.

To the question occasionally asked, What book should one give an English friend that he may have a picture of some transatlantic conditions? a true and complete reply is 'Pony Tracks,' written and illustrated by Frederic Remington (Harpers). It is a vivid account of actual life that cannot possibly be duplicated elsewhere under the canopy, ranging from Dakota to Chihuahua, and from fighting Sioux to rounding up cattle and shooting grouse. Remington shows himself here an artist in words, as he has long been recognized to be with the pencil. His descriptions, like his pictures, represent the essence of things in a realistic way. Whether one goes with him "Policing the Yellowstone," "Bear-chasing in the Rocky Mountains," on "Casey's Last Scout," or to "A Rodeo at Los Ojos," he will have all the characteristics of the life before him and will breathe its very breath. Remington's familiarity with army ways, due to the education of long association engrafted upon true military instinct, leads him to depict that life in the field as no civilian has ever done. He could not do it if he did not love the soldiers and their career, and they are indeed ungrateful if they do not reciprocate his regard and esteem. But it does not require the hypothetical Englishman of our first sentence to open his eyes and enjoy this book. To most Americans it will be a revelation; and any man who has not been a part of what he tells will have his blood run faster for the reading, while even the participants will be made happier over the retrospect by this free handed description, in which rifle and spur are in such accord. Barring a rather sensational frontispiece, the illustrations are true to nature as well as spirited in execution.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have published a charming little volume (one of the Faience Series), chock full of charming little illustrations, of a translation of Daudet's charming little story 'La Belle Nivernaise' and the four others that always accompany it. The anonymous translation is as lively and idiomatic in style as the original, and has only the defects of its good qualities. It sounds like the work of a clever boy, and that is just as it should be, since the original was the play of a clever boy-man. There is an odd sentence on p. 174. It reads: "'Some one proposed to me that I should take in Augustine's reception." We have not the original at hand, but it should surely be: "'Some one proposed to me that I should go to [[or proposed to take me to] Augustine's reception." The illustrations are so good in character, so pleasantly illustrative, that the artist's name should not be withheld. There is even no mention of them on the title-page.

Mr. Arthur Irwin Dasent may "fairly claim to have broken new ground" in his 'History of St. James's Square and the Foundation of the West End of London' (Macmillan). It is, as he remarks, the first attempt at a systematic visitation from house to house of any particular street or square in London. We would fain hope that the example will not be too catching; for the amount of library space that will be called for if every well-known London street or square has to have its own separate volume, is a thing "imagination boggles at." However, Mr. Dasent has not only come first, but has also appropriated for himself the area most suitable for treatment of the kind he proposes. The building of St. James's Square, soon after the Restoration, by the shrewd Henry Jermyn, Earl of St. Albans, was practically the creation of the West End of London; and the five-and-twenty houses which formed three of its sides remained for a century and a half the town abodes of the leaders of English political and fashionable life. Mr. Dasent chats about their occupants in a pleasant and not too critical strain; his book will while away many an indolent hour in clubland; and the appendix, with its comparative table of rates levied on each house between 1676 and 1876, may be grist for the mill of some more philosophic historian.

Messrs. Crowell & Co. have thought it worth their while to issue in two small and comely volumes a cheap reprint of Dodd's 'Beauties of Shakspere.' It is difficult to see what class of readers is to reap a benefit, for such anthologies, once so popular, would seem, at least in the case of Shakspere, to have outlived their usefulness. But some tribute is due to the venerable work which, during the latter half of the eighteenth century, exerted so wide an influence in spreading the knowledge of Shakspere both in England and in Germany. Through these extracts Goethe gained his first impressions of the English dramatist, and in his autobiography he makes this graceful acknowledgment: "Whatever may be said against such collections, which give authors in a fragmentary form, they nevertheless produce many good effects. We are not always so collected and so ready that we can take in a whole work according to its merits. Do we not in a book mark passages which have a particular reference to ourselves? Young people especially, who are wanting in a thorough cultivation, are laudably excited by brilliant passages; and thus I myself remember, as one of the most beautiful epochs of my life, that which is associated with the above-mentioned work." But is it not preferable, after all, that young people should do their own marking? We notice that in the preface the Rev. Mr. Dodd apologizes for having occupied himself with profane literature: "This work was begun and finished before I entered upon the sacred function in which I am now happily employed." When we recall the reverend gentleman's discreditable career, which ended by his being hanged at Tyburn for forgery, these pious excuses elicit a sad smile. He would better have apologized for presuming to write commentaries on the Old and New Testaments.

Extremes meet when the first two calendars to reach us are the "Equal Suffrage Calendar" (New York: E. Scott Co., 146 West Twenty-third Street) and the "Trilby Calendar" (Brentano's). The former is businesslike, with its pad of sentiments pinned against a modestly floriated wall-card. To Trilby are given twelve sheets, the varying borders in varied tints enclosing one of Du Maurier's designs for each month. The authorship of the doggerel thought appropriate to the month is wisely not disclosed.

Seasonable also are 'The Mary Lyon Year-Book,' edited by Helen Marshall North (Boston: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Co.); 'The Helen Jackson Year-Book,' edited by Harriet T. Perry (Boston: Roberts Bros.), and 'The Canon Farrar Year-Book,' edited by W. M. L. Jay (E. P. Dutton & Co.). As mere book-making, the first of these is the comeliest. All have portraits, and the Mary Lyon volume contains views of her foundation, Mount Holyoke College—now very little a seminary for missionaries, we believe—while the Helen Jackson volume is embellished with French symbolism of the calendar in some vignettes by E. H. Garrett.

The *Book-Lovers' Almanac* for 1896 (New York: Duprat & Co.) is fourth and best in the series, with not a weak spot in it. The ornamental borders of the text are deftly composed of printers' marks. The text itself consists of an historical sketch, by Clarence Cook, of "Illustrated Posters," all the illustrations being French, and all but one being drawn from the product of the reign of Louis Philippe; an account, by O. A. Bierstadt, of "Books of Emblems," with facsimiles from De Bry and from Gravelot and Cochin; and "The Old and the New," in which Mr. De Vinne carries on a really candid dialogue between Juvenis and Senex, leading to the conclusion that the modern letter is inferior to that of earlier type-founders, as Boldoni is inferior to Jenson. Here again are helpful illustrations in support of the thesis. We have mentioned only the leading articles, but the lighter filling is excellent of its kind. A bibliography of Frederick Locker-Lampson concludes the *Almanac*.

While the Dent-Macmillan "Temple Shakspere" is proceeding with "Othello" and "King Lear," a larger form—perhaps to be described as small quarto—has been selected for "A Midsummer Night's Dream." Mr. Israel Gollancz contributes an introduction, partly historic and partly fantastic, with diagrams as in a Logic, for young folks, who are especially addressed with this handsome edition. The letterpress is beautifully clear and elegant. The illustrations, in what we may call the manner of Walter Crane, are by Robert Anning Bell. As interpretation they are not remarkable, but as decoration they are uniformly successful, and the smaller bits, like initial letters and head and tail-pieces, are often charming. The binding, too, is tasteful, in buff and gold. In short, any young person must be grateful for such an addition to his choicer library.

A "Geschenkausgabe" of Prof. Max Koch's admirable 'Geschichte der Deutschen Litteratur,' published by Göschen in Stuttgart, and

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already noticed in these columns, has just been issued. The text has been revised and slightly enlarged and the typography considerably improved.

Dr. Cyrus Adler has made an interesting contribution to the history of the persecution of Judaism by translating and publishing in full, as No. 4 of the Publications of the American Jewish Historical Society, the proceedings of the trial of Jorge de Almeida by the Inquisition of Mexico in 1607-9. There is nothing in the case to remove it from the regular routine of such prosecutions, but this renders it all the more valuable to those who are not familiar with the procedure of the Holy Office. The two points which will especially impress the reader are the effectiveness of the use of torture, as exhibited in its application to a witness who was tortured *in caput alienum* to make him accuse others, and the fact that the whole proceeding is conducted against a fugitive. Almeida's wife had been burnt some years previous, when he fled to Spain, yet still the Inquisition continued to gather testimony against him, tried him *in absentia*, and burnt him in effigy in the *auto de fé* of March, 1609.

A most interesting and stimulating paper is Mr. O. H. Howarth's account of the Sierra Madre of Mexico in the *Geographical Journal* for November. He describes with great felicity the geographical features of the range, its strikingly beautiful scenery—there is a waterfall with a "clear perpendicular drop of 948 feet"—the great silver veins, and, though briefly, the various local tribes. These are remarkable for diversities of language, life, and character, though living in close contact. The incorrigibly hostile Apaches, for instance, are neighbors to the timid race of cave-dwellers, "whose only anxiety is to hide from even the friendly stranger." These latter are trained to run down the deer on the plains "by a game somewhat allied to our golf, in which they are required, before qualifying for the deer-hunt, to drive a wooden ball over the level plains for 100 miles without a halt. I am able to quote an instance in which a youth of twenty years pursued a deer on foot for a distance of 135 miles before he exhausted and killed it, and within two days carried it back to the point of starting." A remarkable characteristic of this mountain population is the abject poverty in which they apparently prefer to live, due to actual heredity, the author suggests, in the absence of other sufficient reasons. They suffer keenly from cold, though there is fuel in abundance around their huts, because "it has never been the custom to use heat for any purpose but cookery." A strong appeal is made for the scientific study of these peoples, among whom Mr. Howarth believes are to be found a large though scattered contingent of ancient Asiatic races. This must be done speedily, however, as their probable extinction or fusion with the predominant race cannot be far distant. An account by J. B. Tyrrell of another adventurous expedition in the Barren Lands of Canada to the west of Hudson Bay, and an appreciative notice, by M. É. Reclus, of some recent books on the United States, particularly those of Profs. Whitney and Shaler, are among the other contents of what might be regarded as an American number of the *Journal*.

A practical bulletin issued by the Weather Bureau has reference to temperatures injurious to food products in storage and during transportation, suggesting at the same time methods of protection. In sending perishable freight, not only should there be protection from excessive cold, but from great heat as well; and not less important is the certainty that plenty of air shall circulate through the car, to diffuse and carry off gases always generated. Of course the temperatures at which perishable goods are liable to damage vary considerably, with their condition when shipped, the length of time in transit, and their intermittent or continual motion. Also, both the duration and intensity of the heat and cold to which they are subjected must always be considered. Interesting figures are given with reference to special articles; oysters, beer, potatoes, roses or other cut flowers, early vegetables, olives, and meats being among those specified as liable to injury at definite temperatures.

We are informed by Prof. Zuntz of Berlin that the proposed "frigotherapeutic" establishment in that city is by no means an accomplished fact, nor are the plans so near completion as the statements in the press would imply. Prof. Pictet's system of healing is still in an experimental stage. The experiments made by Prof. Zuntz and two of his pupils in order to determine the physiological effect of the radiation of heat from the body at a very low temperature had to be suspended, owing to the imperfection of the apparatus for reducing the temperature below —70 C. The founding of a "Kälteklinik" will depend upon the results of more thorough experiments in confirmation or refutation of the "frigotherapeutic" theory.

We learn from *Science* that the University of St. Andrews is building a hall of residence for its women students on the lines of the Girton and Newnham Colleges at Cambridge and the Oxford Halls for Women. The fee for residence and board for six months will be £40, each student having a separate room. There will be fifteen scholarships, all tenable for three years.

—In this age of "examinations" it is highly important to make sure what a *wise* examination is, that they may be rendered as little injurious as possible. There are two extremes in the present methods of "examining" the youth of both sexes, and a juxtaposition of illustrations of these extremes may suggest some conclusions worth reaching. At the great English school of Rugby, the boys are required to read the newspapers for the purpose of becoming familiar with modern geographical relations and with the historical conditions of the day. The following examination paper was used recently in the school:

"Describe the east and west-coast routes to Scotland. Give an account of the 'Race for the North.'—Where are the following places, and with what recent events are they connected: Foo Chow, Madagascar, Sofia, Cuba, Congo?—What do you know of the following: Khama, Colonel Shervington, Nasrullah Khan, Sher. Afzul?—Explain the Cabinet, Privy Council, Spiritual Peer.—What was the business done in the last session of Parliament? Who are at present Speaker, Colonial Secretary, Foreign Secretary? What offices are held by Mr. Goschen, Lord Lansdowne, Mr. Long?—An account of the races for the America's Cup?—What are the present difficulties in Armenia? Describe the situation."

In the sharpest possible contrast with this—a contrast much greater than is demanded by any difference of result aimed at in the respective education of boys and of girls—are the following subjects for composition given out last May and June in Paris in the examination of girls (generally from fifteen to seventeen years old) for an elementary diploma—that is, as part of a test of their acquirements to which a large proportion of the girl students in Paris subject themselves, and which gives the tone to their previous instruction:

"Enlarge upon (*développez*) this advice which Mme. de Maintenon used to give to all the young girls at Saint-Cyr on their departure: 'Be always and everywhere sincere and kind (*simples et bonnes*); sincerity and kindness are the two most beautiful ornaments of women.'—Enlarge upon this saying of Jean Jacques Rousseau: 'Everything which impedes and constrains nature has a character of bad taste. This is true both of fine garments for the body and of adornings for the intelligence.'—Laziness makes everything difficult, work makes everything easy.—Comment upon this maxim of La Fontaine: 'To be kind to the bad is to be unwise.'—'Think, speak, write as if you had a thousand witnesses.' Enlarge upon this thought.—Enlarge upon this one: 'Adversity is the touchstone of friendship.' The swallows stay with us in the summer, the cold makes them fly away; so is it with false friends."

—M. Ernest Lavisse of the French Academy makes some excellent remarks on these selections and directions, observing justly that it would be far better to teach the art of condensation than skill in dilution. He notes, also, the truth that words mean different things according to the person who uses them and the epoch at which they are used, and that a young girl who knows Mme. de Maintenon only by name, and is ignorant of the language of the seventeenth century, is necessarily unaware that her "simple" meant "sincere," and she is consequently absolutely misled by the phrase. Just so, no one but a student of Rousseau knows what "nature" meant in his mouth, and it is doing ill by a young girl to let her fancy her composition has been based on "a saying of Mme. de Maintenon," "a saying of Jean Jacques Rousseau." "Poor child!" exclaims M. Lavisse, "she easily learns to believe that she knows about things of which she knows nothing." Almost more to be regretted, as M. Lavisse suggests, is the appeal, and sometimes the sentimental appeal, made in the choice of such subjects to the experience of life—an experience the poor little writers must, perforce, factitiously assume to have had. The passage here dwelt on is only a small part of an interesting article in the first November number of the *Revue de Paris*—a plea for instruction that shall be more instructive than that now given to these young girls. Some ground for hope in this direction is afforded by a ministerial circular lately issued (October 12) suggesting some changes.

—In 'Washington in his Library and Life' (E. & J. B. Young & Co.), President Potter of Hobart College has gathered what he could learn of Washington's library at Mt. Vernon, and in a chatty way has told much that is true—and not a little that is untrue. Indeed, Washington was not at all what President Potter conceives him to have been. He was not bookish; he was not a reader of books; he was not a student of books; he was not "religious." He learned in life's experience, and his strength lay in his use of that experience in judging men's capacity. He rarely made a mistake in choosing his advisers; but from the beginning of the Revolution an adviser he always had. To represent him as a scholar and a lover of books is to give him a character which he never claimed, and which even a superficial examination of his writings would disprove. Such a statement as this—"He marshalled the people by his pen, for, back of his potent presence, books, reading, carefully prepared statements founded on solid information, were the grounds, long overlooked, of his great influence"—has no basis in fact. The account of confederacies in Washington's manuscript was merely a transcript of a paper by Madison, interesting as showing the painstaking of

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the man, but not proving book knowledge. Incidentally, Dr. Potter tells us that the spurious MS. "Prayers of Washington" has been purchased by Dr. Hoffman, who intends to distribute pages among certain educational institutions. The mythical aide, "Col. Temple," is again brought forward. The best part of this book is the partial list of the library, together with the chapter on the volumes presented to Washington, as some of the dedications are curious.

—Singular it is that, after so many centuries of writing, it is but just beginning to be discovered that no quantity and no quality of mere chronicle or exposition will convey to the reader a writer's impression of a place. How many have attempted Italy, but a "sampler" of that land of inexhaustible beauty feels justified in declaring that a poignant "sensation of Italy" has been conveyed to him neither by De Brosses nor by Goethe, neither by Gregorovius nor by Symonds, neither by "Vernon Lee" nor (least of all) by M. Bourget. Only in a small volume of sketches recently published (London: Dent; New York: Putnams), under the fanciful title of 'Earthwork out of Tuscany: Impressions and Translations,' written by Mr. Maurice Hewlett, has the miracle been accomplished. Mr. Hewlett is the first writer who, saturated through and through with all that is most artistic in Tuscany, has had the wit to know that he can communicate his sensations only by reincarnating them in readily appealing imaginative form. Happily he has not only the wit, but the skill also. English more colored and pungent will not easily be discovered. We greet in Mr. Hewlett the accomplished artist in what practically is a new art. His incidental translations, whether in prose or in verse, are alike notable. The range of his impressions is masked by his allusive chapter-titles, such as, "Of Poets and Needlework," "The Soul of a Fact," "Quattrocentisteria," etc. The volume is a gem of bookmaking.

—The study of Venetian painting has been greatly enriched of late by the publication of two fascicules of documents bearing vitally upon its history. The patient collector of these documents, Prof. P. P. di Osvaldo, is to be thanked, not only for gathering them out from the chaos of an archive, but also for giving a rare example of abstaining from comments and statements of a kind which not the archivist but the connoisseur only can give. In the first fascicule of his 'Raccolto di Documenti per servire alla Storia della Pittura Veneziana nei Secoli XV. e XVI.,' Signor di Osvaldo publishes all the notices that bear upon the Bellini—one of the most striking instances of transmitted genius in history, for the father, by mere accident less famous than his sons, was no less an artist, and perhaps even more creative. Hitherto, information regarding the father has been of the scantiest. Now we know that he spent most of his life at Venice itself, and not, as has always been supposed, at Padua; that he was a member of various *scuole*, or Mutual Aid Societies, and that he was kept busy. He was still alive and working on August 26, 1470. On November 25 of the following year his *widow* made a will, curiously enough making no mention of Giovanni, but leaving all her belongings to Gentile and another son named Niccolò. An item regarding Giovanni, extracted from a letter written in 1470 by a Venetian merchant at Pera, is decidedly amusing. This merchant begs his correspondent to send him a Christ painted by Lazzaro Sebastiani (one of the most wretched but most popular painters in Venice), but, if he be unwilling to paint it, or dead, then, as a *pis-aller*, to send him a Christ by Giovanni Bellini!

—The second fascicule is of even greater importance, for it throws much needed light upon the careers and reciprocal relations of various painters, some of them mere names, such as Jacobello Cataino, Jacobello Buleghela, Jacobello della Chiesa, and Alberegno, and others better known and even important, such as Dal Fiore, Bono, and the Vivarini. It appears that Antonio Vivarini, known as Antonio da Murano, was, in 1446, living not at Murano, but in the parish of Santa Maria Formosa in Venice. It is definitely established, furthermore, that he was the father of Alvise. Of the latter we learn that he was expelled from the Scuola della Carità in 1488 for non-attendance during many years, and that in 1492 he became a member of the Scuola Grande di San Marco, of which his uncle Bartolommeo was already a member. The recent attempts to vindicate the position of Bartolommeo Montagna as an important artist, and to connect him more closely with Venice and with the school of the Vivarini, are more than confirmed by the document stating that in 1482, while still a young man, he was employed to paint two pictures for the greatest of the Mutual Aid Societies, this same Scuola Grande di San Marco. Another painter whose style of work clearly connected him with the Vivarini, Girolamo Mocetto, is now proved to have been not a Veronese, as has been supposed, but a pure Venetian, and the son of an older painter of the Muranese school, Andrea da Murano.

—Paul Verlaine has just accomplished the pious work of gathering, arranging, and at last publishing in full the poems of his friend—some said his *âme damnée*—Arthur Rimbaud. Rimbaud was, in the completest sense, what Verlaine himself calls a "poëte maudit." If Verlaine were his master, it must be said that the disciple surpassed the master in all his maddest characteristics. There was something almost insane in his excesses. He was more a vagabond than Verlaine, even more at odds with the world, a more stupefying blasphemer, and, at the end, more passionately devout. In his verse he was more an innovator than Verlaine has ever been, and it may be doubted whether he did not himself influence Verlaine more than he was swayed by him. It was Rimbaud whom Verlaine attempted to shoot in a drunken quarrel in Belgium—an act which cost him many months of imprisonment. All of a sudden Rimbaud disappeared, like "Waring." All sorts of stories about him went the rounds of the newspapers: he was dead; he had gone to the far East; he had become a Trappist. At last it came to be asserted that he never had existed, and that the poems published under his name were mystifications. All the while, however, he was in South Africa, hunting for gold, or trafficking in ivory, spices, and gums. At last he returned to France, but too late, for his strength was shattered. He died in a hospital the death of a saint, full of the raptures of mysticism. His poems were scattered in all sorts of places among the reviews of the Jeunes. The best known of all of them, unhappily for him, is the somewhat absurd sonnet on the colors of the vowels:

> "A noir, E blanc, I rouge, U vert, O bleu, voyelles,
> Je dirai quelque jour vos naissances latentes."

It may well be doubted whether this sonnet was ever seriously meant; it is quite as likely to have been thrown out as a stumbling-block for critics to fall over, and to make talk. Rimbaud's serious work was of much greater value. It has been, and may properly be, compared to that of Poe. At any rate, Rimbaud, more than any other, influenced Verlaine, and Verlaine is the acknowledged master and leader of the younger French poets of our time.

COUES'S EXPEDITIONS OF PIKE.

The Expeditions of Zebulon Montgomery Pike to Head-Waters of the Mississippi River, through Louisiana Territory, and in New Spain, during the years 1805-6-7. A new edition, now first reprinted in full from the original of 1810. With copious commentary, memoir of Pike, new map and other illustrations, and complete index. By Elliott Coues, late Captain and Assistant Surgeon U. S. A., etc., etc. 3 vols. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1895.

THIS edition of Pike's explorations is only second in value to the annotated edition of the Journal of Lewis and Clark, by the same editor. Few men have made so deep an impress on the development of their country as did Zebulon M. Pike, who fell at York, Canada, in 1813, at the early age of thirty-four years. Through his individual efforts the Government of the United States initiated its show of authority and interest in the great Northwest, which for nearly a quarter of a century had belonged to it in name but not in fact. He first made known the physical characteristics of the unknown and debatable territory which separated the eastern inhabited parts of the newly acquired Louisiana from the northwestern domains of New Spain. Pike's career in the United States Army was unexampled. He rose in fourteen years through all the intermediate grades from a cadet in the ranks to be a brigadier-general, and died in one of the few successful battles of our second war with Great Britain. In Dr. Coues's memoir of Pike has been gathered much new and hitherto scattered information, especially as to his professional career, methods of work, and as to his death. Whiting's error that Pike was a cadet in his father's regiment, Second Infantry, is perpetuated in this volume; in fact, the law permitted cadets only in the regiments of artillerists and engineers. The U. S. M. P. S. (United States Military and Philosophical Society), to which Pike dedicates his book, and of which Coues gives no account, had among its members the distinguished Fulton, who published one of his remarkable books, 'Torpedoes in Warfare,' as a member of this society. The temper, honor, and ideals of Pike appear in his refusal to employ L'Rone, who proposed to desert from the N.W. (British) Company (p. 174); in his uncomplaining endurance of cold and discomfort (p. 144); in his declaration that in "war the field of action is the sphere of young men, where they aspire to gather laurels or renown to smooth the decline of age, or a glorious death" (p. 225); in his description of Frazer as a man possessing "that without which an education serves but to add to frivolity of character—candor, bravery, and that *amor patriæ* which distinguish the good of every nation"; and finally in his last published orders that any pillaging soldier "shall, if convicted, suffer death. Courage and bravery in the field do not more distinguish the soldier than humanity after victory." His last letter runs: "Should I be the happy mortal destined to turn the scale of war, will you not rejoice, oh my father? May heaven be propitious and smile

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on the cause of my country. But if I am destined to fall, may my fall be like Wolfe's, to sleep in the arms of victory." The next day, April 27, Pike, while awaiting a white flag and succoring a wounded foe, was mortally wounded by the explosion of the enemy's magazine. Dr. Coues gives an excellent account of the battle of York, and, among other original information, prints the official reports of Gen. Sheaffe (xci-xciii), in which the following extracts show that the main magazine was exploded by his orders: "I caused our grand magazine to be blown up," and, "The troops were withdrawn towards the town, and the grand magazine was at the same time blown up."

Pike's first expedition, 1805, was made from St. Louis by flatboat up the Mississippi, under orders of Gen. Wilkinson to ascertain the conditions of British trade within the limits of the United States, and to draw the Indian tribes to their allegiance to the Government. He built winter quarters four miles below Little Falls, Minn., and, with a small field force, explored in the very dead of winter the head-waters of the Mississippi, and visited the various posts of the Northwest Company (British). He made a treaty with the Indians for cession of land near Fort Snelling to the United States—much like other Indian treaties of that period—whose legality his editor amusingly questions, and brought the traders under control. Pike's dealings with the traders were decisive, forcible, and fair; he forgave the past, remedied existing conditions, imposed proper restrictions for the future, and returned in triumph and safety to St. Louis. The most important geographical information under this section contributed by Dr. Coues is the full elucidation of the original discovery or determination of the true source of the Mississippi River, in which the repeated efforts from Pike to Schoolcraft are set forth. Then follows the success of Nicollet, 1836, in discovering "the several Nicollet Springs [which] issue from the ground and form a rill whose waters (through Middle Nicollet Lake and Lake Itasca) are continuous to the Gulf of Mexico" (p. 167). It may be here added that, although the index is unusually full, yet omissions occur, and the source of the Mississippi, to which ten pages of text are given, is not indexed under that river. The five original charts of Pike are reproduced quite satisfactorily, and in passing let it be said that it is a relief to find Pike's plagiarism of Humboldt's map of 1804 frankly acknowledged. The new, additional map, a historico-geographical chart of the upper Mississippi, is, over and above its illustrative value, a most welcome contribution for historical students. It is based on the best maps of the Corps of Engineers, United States Army, and bears a large amount of historical information judiciously selected and carefully compiled.

In June, 1806, less than two months after his return from the upper Mississippi, Pike started on his expedition to New Spain. His ostensible object was to restore freed captives to the Osage Nation, to establish friendly relations with the Comanches at the head waters of the Arkansas and Red Rivers near New Mexico, to explore these rivers—one party to return by the Arkansas and the other by the Red River—and to acquire such geographical knowledge as would insure a definitive determination of the boundary line between Louisiana and north Mexico. Dr. Coues has been at very great pains to outline definitely Pike's route to New Mexico through Missouri, Colorado, and Kansas. In the last named State he followed to the southwest the broad trail made by a Spanish force from Santa Fé under Malgares, who had invaded the United States and tampered with the Indian tribes in an effort to forestall Pike's efforts. From near Great Bend, Kansas, Pike sent his lieutenant (Wilkinson) with seven men down the Arkansas, while he, with Dr. Robinson, started westward. It should be borne in mind that this country was absolutely unknown to Americans. Pike's discovery of the Rocky or "Mexican" Mountains, as he called them; his unsuccessful efforts to ascend the great peak which bears his name; his sufferings in exploring the valley of the upper Arkansas, and the heroic though rash determination with which he crossed the maze of unexplored mountains into the valley of the upper Rio Grande, merit the attention of every American interested in the exploration and development of his country.

Leaving two men in a block-house at the present site of Cañon City, Ark., January 14, 1807, he followed up Grape Creek, passed through the Sand Hill pass of the Sangre de Cristo range, and, entering the San Luis valley, reached the Rio Grande near the present site of Alamosa. Believing this to be the Red River, Pike crossed it, and, camping on the south bank of the Conejos, here constructed a stockade. This mid-winter journey was made in extremely cold weather through snow, in summer clothing, with insufficient food. Nine men were frozen, two (Sparks and Dougherty) suffering to such an extent that they were necessarily left in a mountain camp with meat and ammunition. From the stockade a party was sent back across the range to bring in the baggage and the frozen men, if they could travel, but, the soldiers being still helpless, the party returned, and later the sufferers were succored by Sergeant Meek and Private Miller. This story of the courage and steadfastness of American soldiers should be read in its plain and simple recitation in detail of the most extreme sufferings and hardships, which were considered as a matter of course.

After the strengthening of the stockade, Dr. Robinson was sent to Santa Fé for the ostensible purpose of presenting a Spanish claim, but in reality to spy out the trade prospects, military force, etc. As a final result, Pike was visited by a Spanish officer of dragoons, escorted to Santa Fé, examined by Gov. Allencaster, and sent to Chihuahua, Robinson rejoining the command at Albuquerque. Escorted from Chihuahua across the Rio Grande, they passed through Texas by the way of San Antonio, and on July 1, 1807, reached the United States at Natchitoches. Dr. Robinson, it may be added, was never commissioned in the army, despite Pike's recommendation. The fate of the men left in New Spain remains unsettled, both in Pike's narrative and in Coues's notes, except as regards Vasquez. It might be said, however, that probably all returned to the United States, the army records showing that Corporal Jackson reënlisted in the Second Infantry in 1809.

As to Wilkinson's object in sending Pike into New Spain, it is useless to surmise, but doubtless it was in furtherance of the ambitious schemes of that unscrupulous officer. Pike knowingly entered with an armed force the limits of a friendly country (for, even if he mistook the Rio Grande for the Red River, he was fortified on the Spanish side of it); detached his surgeon from his command; concealed his connection with his doctor; and secretly obtained all possible information concerning the physical and military conditions of New Spain; all of which indicates that he acted with method; under secret orders, and for a definite purpose. His whole career shows that he was a loyal subordinate and a man of a high sense of honor, who would not, without orders from his superiors, have acted as a spy while being escorted with courtesy and consideration through the country. Doubtless he considered that he was patriotically paying the Spanish in their own coin for Malgares's invasion of American territory the year previous.

Dr. Coues has brought together many valuable bits of information regarding the journey to New Spain, notably the extract from Meline giving the Spanish view of Pike's invasion. Governor Allencaster looked on it as preliminary to permanent occupation of contiguous territory, and, in his official report, says:

"From what I gathered from Robinson and from the above named officer [Pike], I conclude distinctly that the expedition of July [1806] was specially designed to conciliate two Indian tribes in behalf of the United States Government. . . . Furthermore, that the Anglo-American Government considers as included within the boundaries of Louisiana all the rivers that empty into the Mississippi, and all the territories that extend to the headwaters of the Rio Colorado [Canadian River]; . . . that it is their intention this year or next to establish forts or settlements on all these rivers, in order to monopolize all the trade and commerce."

Among many valuable notes, those on pp. 639-47, 654, 747, and 764 elucidate the geographic and military history of localities which were not specially dwelt upon by Pike, but have become memorable since his time. The ethnological notes are specially interesting in connection with New Mexico, pp. 727-48; they bear on the Pueblo and Apache Indians, whose relations with the United States form a not unimportant chapter of American history. Dr. Coues appears at his best in dealing with the Indian tribes that have occupied New Mexico and Arizona. Other notes, too numerous to mention, are of varied importance and interest. The rearrangement by Dr. Coues of the appendices and other extraneous matter adds very greatly to the value of this edition, since in all others even the experienced reader has found it difficult to collate complete information on many important topics. It is unfortunate that the editorial comments are not always pertinent and dignified. Slang terms are used, remarks reflecting upon brother officers appear, and the notes are occasionally obtrusive, if not offensive, as regards religious topics. The remarks (p. 158) on Schoolcraft's invention of new words are in very questionable taste. In many instances the notes are chargeable with prolixity. If the scope of them was to pass beyond illustrations of the men and places named in Pike's narrative, it would have seemed advisable to devote time and attention to historical comments upon existing conditions of affairs in the Northwest Territory and in New Spain.

Despite these minor defects, the volumes are an important contribution to geographical and historical literature.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

'CHILDREN'S STORIES IN AMERICAN LITERATURE,' by Henrietta G. Wright (Charles Scribner's Sons), does not make the most of a good opportunity. After a general chapter on "the early literature," there are sixteen chapters on as many American authors, beginning with Audubon and ending with Holmes. The emphasis is much more on their books than on their characters and lives, and the account of their books is as mechanical as the details of a publisher's catalogue, with

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something of the manner of the notices furnished by publishers to editors for their "indolent reviewers." The praise is here and there too patriotic to be just, as where Cooper's place in American literature is said to be similar to that of Scott in England. There is not a word of Cooper's ebullient temper and his stubborn battle with a libellous press. But for a passing allusion to his college pranks, Poe appears quite as immaculate as Emerson, who has the briefest chapter in the book. On the other hand, as little as possible is made of Parkman's heroic struggle against fearful odds. Prescott's disabilities receive somewhat more attention, but not much. The young reader is not permitted to know that there was anything painful in Motley's ministerial career. The birthplace of Bryant is assigned to the Berkshire Hills, and the assertion that "Green River" was a poem of his manhood, retrospective of his boyhood, is without any justification. It will be a bright boy who does not carry away from the high-flown account of "Yankee Doodle" in the first chapter an impression of his historical reality.

Among the recent boys' stories of the civil war 'Jack Benson's Log,' by Col. Charles Ledyard Norton (Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co.), will take a high rank. The hero is a New England boy who goes from a quaint boarding-school to the Naval Academy at Annapolis, and from thence to one of the blockading squadron off the Carolina coast. The incidents, such as the attempted capture of "Old Ironsides" and the night expedition on the Santee River, are well chosen, and are described with much spirit and a realistic sea-flavor. Our only criticism would be that the author at times sacrifices his story to an endeavor to write history which most boys may be fairly presumed to know. The book, which is well illustrated, covers only the first year of the war, and its readers will look with interest for the promised sequel.

'In the Okefenokee,' by Louis Pendleton (Boston: Roberts Brothers), is also a story of war time, but the fighting is with wildcats and bears. Two lads wander into a camp of deserters in the heart of the great Georgia swamp and are detained by them for several weeks. Their adventures in their futile attempts to escape cannot fail to interest even older readers than those for whom the book was written, so novel are the scenes and so well described are the principal characters, especially the manly and patriotic little hero. The story, in a much abbreviated form, originally appeared in the *Youth's Companion*.

A gratuitous excellence of workmanship, not common in children's stories, and a leaning to theatrical effect emphasize the French origin of 'The Three Apprentices of Moon Street,' by Georges Montorgueil (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). The three boys, John, Johnnie, and Jack, are too strictly typical of the three grades of character inferable from their names to be natural. Unfortunately, perverse human nature likes best to see in books a reflection of familiar objects. Hence the boys are interesting in inverse ratio to their virtue, and the very end for which we may suppose them to have been made, thus typical is defeated. The best one is monstrously unnatural, the middling one is vague, and only the "dreadful warning" seems like a boy at all.

Criticism is somewhat disarmed when Mrs. Burnett announces that they were by no means ordinary children whose journey to the Chicago Fair she narrates in 'Two Little Pilgrims' Progress' (Scribners). Perhaps a twelve-year-old boy and girl might have planned such an expedition a year ahead, and have worked hard and constantly to earn money for it, but it passes belief that they could have done all this without a hint to any one, and actually have carried out their purpose unsuspected. That they should have attracted a rich man, who finally adopted them, is natural enough: it is what always happens to poor orphans who are too young to get married. The book is brightly written, as was to be expected, with many pleasant touches; but it would be better if addressed more squarely and directly to children. The side glances at the "grown up" gallery are too frequent to escape notice from the real audience, and are likely to make it uneasy.

The reappearance of Mowgli and other friends in Mr. Kipling's 'Second Jungle Book' (The Century Co.) will be hailed with pleasure by many young readers whom the original 'Jungle Book' delighted last year. Mowgli has grown in size, but is still uncorrupted and simple. Hathi and Bagheera and the other agreeable, dignified, and witty beasts are the same as ever. The book deepens and amplifies the vivid impression of life in India which Mr. Kipling has already given, and carries one into the very heart of a new and strange world as only a master's work could do.

It was evidently a struggle against nature to subdue the fascinating city of Florence to a mere background in 'A Child of Tuscany,' by Marguerite Bouvet (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). It seems a useless struggle, too, since the characters have so little substance and reality that they hardly deserve any background at all. The phantom people might better retire and let Florence assert itself.

Full of the life of sea and shore about her island of Appledore are Mrs. Celia Thaxter's 'Stories and Poems for Children' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The flowers in her garden, the sandpipers on the beach, the robin's nest in the lilac bush, and the circling gulls overhead—such are the simple things which filled her soul with delight and overflowed in graceful verse. The stories are very slight, the merest thread of incident, but so pleasantly told that they should find favor.

The excessive exuberance which has marked some of Mrs. Laura E. Richards's former stories seems to have broken out on the cover of her latest book, 'Nautilus' (Estes & Lauriat). Here a black and white square-rigged "schooner" sails with jibboom pointing skyward across a white and yellow sea, driven by a wind as violent as the brilliant chrome sky. Such a remarkable design may be imagined to have absorbed a good deal of superfluous color from the pages. Whatever the cause of improvement, we have, this time, a fairly straightforward tale of a boy, unspoiled by much ill-treatment, who was rescued from a miserable life by a good, undreamt-of uncle. Perhaps to children, used as they are to believe "six impossible things before breakfast," it will not seem too unlikely that a foreign uncle should first have made known his existence by sailing up the river and, with little ceremony, carrying off the boy in his schooner *Nautilus*.

'The Rabbit Witch, and Other Tales,' by Katharine Pyle (E. P. Dutton & Co.), revives both the pantalettes and the very moral verses which go with them to make what an original child called a "pantaletty" book. Here is set forth the warning fate of children who were "far from good," who "liked to make a noise"; of the girl who would "shout and play with boys," and the boy who "would not eat his bread and milk"—the latter in contrast to the antique greedy boy, whom no one ever saw. There is something engaging about the frankness of these little moralities, and at the early age when children like them they may help to formulate notions of propriety. The illustrations are excellent.

The Century Co. publish Mr. Palmer Cox's fifth Brownie book, 'The Brownies through the Union.' It might be more of a geography lesson than would go down even with the appetizing Brownie sauce if every State were visited, so the Brownies wisely content themselves with fourteen, well scattered, and manage to find something interesting in each. The youngsters will enjoy picking out their old favorites in the pictures to see what new antics they are up to.

Having gone pretty much through the spectrum with his successive fairy books, Mr. Andrew Lang now has a series of "True Story Books" well going, the blue one of last year being succeeded by the red one which the Longmans have just brought out. Here we have Rider Haggard's story of Major Wilson's last fight on the Shangani; Mr. Lang himself on the Maid of France, and Mrs. Lang in several adaptations from Froissart and others; tales by Mr. Crockett, Miss Repplier, and others, with generous extracts from Marbot and Prescott. Not to let the fairies entirely escape him in this sober light of day, Mr. Lang also publishes 'My Own Fairy Book' (Longmans). It is addressed, apparently, to readers who have become well sophisticated if not a little blasé by a long course in the author's collections of fairy stories, since he now plays openly whimsical tricks with the solemn old stage properties of fairyland—the magic carpet, the cap of darkness, etc. Yet we doubt not that many a modern child will find amusement in seeing the heads of his former idols knocked together in this way.

Many hands of varying skill have written the dozen or so of stories which make up 'The Silver Fairy Book' (Putnams). From the French, German, Spanish, Swedish, Servian, etc., they come, all fitted to amuse some child's empty moments, and guiltless of more serious intention.

Again that exhaustless treasury of the marvellous, the 'Arabian Nights,' has furnished a handsome gift book. 'More Fairy Tales from the Arabian Nights' (Putnams) includes several of the most famous stories, edited by E. Dixon and finely illustrated by J. B. Batten. It seems better worth while so to enrich these older tales than to strive after mere novelty.

"Cinderella," "Ali Baba," "Aladdin," "Bluebeard," Mother Goose, and Aesop are mustered familiarly in twelve charmingly printed, illustrated, and bound little volumes issued by Dent-Macmillan. They come in a neat box, and are a desirable gift if only to acquaint the youngest with the art of fine book-making. "Banbury Cross" is the name bestowed on the series.

A Victorian Anthology, 1837-'95. Edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman. Selections illustrating the editor's critical review of British poetry in the reign of Victoria. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The mere announcement of a Victorian Anthology by so well-appointed a critic as Mr. Stedman has doubtless given pleasure, not alone to a great many readers of his 'Victorian Poets,' but to a larger circle beyond. They will find nothing to disappoint them in the general arrangement of the book, the prevailing good taste of the selections, or the

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thoroughness of the critical apparatus. If any disappointment should arise, it will be founded mainly on the fact that this book follows a little too closely on the lines of its predecessor, reflects too fully its estimates, and goes too little beyond its list of authors. When it is considered that the 'Victorian Poets' appeared originally in 1875, and was not essentially modified in the revision of 1887, and that the outburst of new rhymers has been only less remarkable, even since this last date, than that of new novelists, it is probable that this latest anthology will be most eagerly sought, by many, as a means of getting at these latest candidates for fame. In this respect there will be, we fancy, some occasional disappointment. The author himself would admit, probably, that had his book been created *de novo*, and not been, in a manner, the second part of a class-book, his heroes and heroines might have been somewhat different. Landor, Hood, Peacock, Procter, and Montgomery undoubtedly survived into the Victorian epoch, but they seem much remoter figures in 1895 than in 1875; and in some cases their fame can scarcely be said to have survived at all. At any rate, their works have been sifted and resifted for anthologies; and there is far less probability that any ingenuous reader will look for some information about them in this anthology than that he will consult it for some knowledge of Henley or Grant Allen, for instance, who are not to be found here at all. So the young enthusiast who hears of the "poets of the Bodley Head" or of the "Rhymers' Club," will find only about half the tuneful chorus under the latter name here recognized, while the other half is ignored. Nor is there any clear principle of selection among these. Yeats, for instance, is *facile princeps* among them all; and Le Gallienne is at least well advertised; but there seems no reason why Rhys and Symons and Todhunter should be "personally conducted" across the Atlantic to the exclusion of such other *dii minores* as Dawson, Ellis, Hillier, Lionel Johnson, Plarr, Radford, and Rolleston. Indeed, no other writer in the club has given us so much of the bewitching Yeats flavor as Lionel Johnson in his verses "To Morfydd."

Of course, no anthologist is expected to include all the poetlings, but compilers should at least give us the more noticeable. Bennoch has a claim upon Americans as the friend of Hawthorne; Auberon Herbert has interest for us as a patrician radical; the French and English poems of Raffalovich have a grace of their own; Gascoigne Mackie's 'Poems Dramatic and Democratic' have much vigor, and so has Edward Carpenter's 'Towards Democracy,' whose Whitmanesque flavor will form, in Mr. Stedman's eyes, no objection. We cannot but think that poets like these, and others who might easily be added, would have been included in the 'Victorian Anthology' if it could have been entirely detached from the work to which it is a sequel; if, in other words, the editor could have begun at 1895 and worked backwards, instead of having begun in 1875 and worked forwards.

As to the selections from the better known poets, this must always be largely a matter of what astronomers call the personal equation; and every editor must judge for himself. Yet one rule seems simple, that where there is a pretty general consensus of readers as to a poet's high-water mark in his art, every selection, however limited, should include this, if nothing else. No one would think of making a selection from Holmes, for instance, without putting in "The Chambered Nautilus." All recognize that in this, if anywhere, lies his bid for permanent fame. Now it seems to us clear that Meredith's "Nuptials of Attila," Sir Samuel Ferguson's "The Building of the Ship," Isa Craig-Knox's "The Brides of Quair," Hartley Coleridge's "She was a queen of noble Nature's crowning," Elliott's "Of Mary, by heaven lent," and Montgomery's "Evening among the Alps" and "There lived a man" are in just this category. To our thinking, and by the general recognition, these particular poems are so superior to the rest of their respective authors' work as to leave little room for selection: "Eclipse" is ahead and the rest nowhere. Yet none of these is included by Mr. Stedman. Again, we think it a serious omission to have dismissed Tennyson with no extract from "In Memoriam," and Browning with no example of the noble blank-verse soliloquies in his dramas—for instance, that in "Colombe's Birthday," beginning,

"When is man strong until he feels alone?"

We are surprised, also, that Mr. Stedman has omitted in his selections from Rossetti—too short at best, only six pages being given to him and twelve to William Morris—his finest example of lyrical cadence, "The Song of the Bower." The same might be said as to the omission of Swinburne's heroic "Song in Time of Order." Even with our editor's selections from Kipling, evidently a favorite of his, we are not quite satisfied. Nowhere has this poet shown such a grip of iron as in the "Ballad of Bolivar," if indeed it is surpassed in English literature for that quality; and certainly never such a haunting charm as in his "Mandalay," a poem which cannot be read aloud so prosaically as not to furnish its own guitar accompaniment. But Mr. Stedman might say, perhaps justly, that we are here reverting too much to the personal equation.

The Bibliographical Notes are, as was to be expected from Mr. Stedman, full and careful, though they are here attributed to Miss Vernetta E. Coleman, with an occasional intercalation by the senior editor. Possibly they include a little too much criticism, unless there were more; it is so hard to sum up in a word. We should not, for instance, call Mr. Lang an "authoritative" author—he is much too hasty and whimsical for such a phrase; his London sobriquet of "The Amateur Genius" is far better. As to accuracy, we have found few slips. The impression is given (p. 707) that Charles Tennyson Turner's Sonnets were not collected until after his death, but a small volume of them appeared, in 1830, before he took the name of Turner. Fitzgerald's "Euphranor" and "Polonius" are not translations (p. 689), nor do they purport to be, but are *fragmentary original compositions*. It might have been well to say that Clough's hexameter poem, "The Bothie of Tober-na-Vuolich," was originally called "The Bothie of Toper-na-Fuosich," since it became best known in this country under the latter name, through Emerson's zealous praises. The triviality of these criticisms is our best tribute to the excellence of these Bibliographical Notes; and as for typographical errors, the whole handsome volume does not seem to afford one.

Icebound on Kolguev. By Aubyn Trevor-Battye. Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xxviii, 458. Ills. and maps.

NORTH of Tcheskaia Bay, and a little less than half way between the entrance to the White Sea and Novaia Zemlia, lies the low rounded alluvial island of Kolguev (pronounced *Kol-goo-yeff*). Surrounded by ice during a large part of the year, without harborage for anything larger than a small schooner, it is rarely visited and is hardly known except to a few Russian traders from the adjacent mainland. Its name was first recorded by Stephen Burrough in 1556. For three hundred years it was practically unexplored, and the first scientific examination of it was made by Savelieff and Ruprecht in the summer of 1841. They spent but six days on the island, much of which was stormy weather. The shores are comparatively low, and the island is ovoid in shape, about 52 miles north and south and 37 miles east and west, rising towards the centre into a few low hills, the highest being about 150 feet above the sea. These summits are holy places to the Samoyeds, and are marked by rude wooden fetishes, or sticks set in the soil, with a roughly carved face on the upper end and a few transverse grooves, representing ribs, just below it. These sticks are supposed to represent a deity, called Num, to whom sacrifices were made on the hill-tops, where, on the death of a member of the tribe, some of his personal belongings were carried and deposited as a propitiatory rite. The fetishes are called by the Russians "bolvani," and by the Samoyeds "shaiadeh."

The island has been inhabited by Samoyeds from time immemorial, and, owing to their isolation, the sparse population of the island has retained its primitive customs to a greater extent than is the case among the Samoyeds of the mainland. Half a century ago the island was the seat of a considerable traffic in the skins of the polar bear, seal, and walrus, down, and reindeer products. The number of deer is stated to have reached 25,000, of which part were the property of the natives and part belonged to Russian traders, who visited the island annually to take away the skins, salt meat, and tallow. The herds were attacked by a pestilence which destroyed the deer by thousands, a blow from which the island has never recovered. At the present time there seem to be but a few thousand deer, and the trade attracts but two or three tiny vessels once a year. The island is a breeding-ground for multitudes of arctic water-fowl, especially geese, and a very important part of the subsistence of the inhabitants is derived from the annual trapping of the geese while moulting—a practice which has been carried on from ancient times. As many as 100,000 geese are said to have been taken in a single season.

Mr. Trevor-Battye is an enthusiastic ornithologist, and his attention had been called to Kolguev as a promising spot for collecting specimens and data in regard to the breeding habits of northern birds. With a friend he proceeded to charter a small steam yacht, and in June, 1894, with a single companion, succeeded in making a landing on the northern end of the island. Here, after wandering about for some time, he reached a Samoyed camp, and afterward a point on the south coast where the yacht was expected to call in July. This plan was frustrated by the presence of ice, and the explorers were forced to remain on the island until September, finally escaping to the mainland on the barkass of the Russian trader. During his enforced stay the author was often the guest of the Samoyeds, and found much to admire in the character of these simple, honest, primitive folk, from whom he parted with regret. Although far from being a trained ethnologist, his notes and observations will have permanent value for the anthropologist. Satisfactory collections of birds and plants were made, which are treated of in an appendix.

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The book is almost a direct transcript of the author's journal, and its faults are those common to such documents. While one cannot but recognize that a better trained observer might have brought back a richer harvest in lines not ornithological or botanical, and that the relation of adventure is somewhat diffuse, yet the unpretentious manner in which the author recounts his experiences disarms criticism on this score. There are many excellent illustrations and three good maps. The book is handsomely printed, and has a good index.

The Psychology of Number, and its Applications to Methods of Teaching Arithmetic. By James A. McLellan and John Dewey. [International Educational Series.] D. Appleton & Co. 1895.

THE two respected scholars whose names appear upon the title-page of this work, in their eagerness to illustrate the important truth that the teaching of arithmetic ought to be based upon a thorough acquaintance with psychology, seem to have clean forgotten that there are two other legs to the tripod on which it should rest, viz., an exact logical analysis, and a lively appreciation and comprehension of the nature of mathematics in general. As long as nothing but psychology is called for, what they say is admirable—this, for example:

"There are but few children who do not at first delight in number. Counting (the fundamental process of arithmetic) is a thing of joy to them. . . . When, under the formal teaching of number, that interest, instead of being quickened and strengthened, actually dies out, the method of teaching must be seriously at fault. . . . The native aptitude for number is continually baffled. . . . The child is adjudged to have no interest in number and no taste for mathematics; and to nature is ascribed an incapacity due to irrational instruction. . . . It is perhaps not too much to say that nine-tenths of those who feel that they have no aptitude for mathematics owe this misfortune to wrong teaching at first."

Excellent; and even more true of geometry than of arithmetic. Again, the authors are admirably alive to the futility of any attempt to teach any branch of mathematics until the scholar has been made to feel with some accuracy what the use of it is. Of course, you cannot convey to young children your own meaning when you say, what all grown people discover, that the happiness of life very greatly depends upon facility in ciphering. Yet you must try to cast some adumbration of the distinction between happiness and misery upon their poor little hearts, and make them associate the one with arithmetical expertness and the other with neglect of numbers. That should be Lesson I. in arithmetic.

Upon such generalities of the art of teaching, too usually neglected, Profs. McLellan and Dewey are perfect. But these things have been said before. When we come down to details, depending upon the nature of mathematical thought, they are more often wrong than right. They have allowed secondary truths and half-truths to run away with them. For instance, their own conception of the purpose and end of numbers is not true either in scientific mathematics or in life. They tell us that numbers are for measurement, for valuation. This is not accurate; but, waiving that for a moment, we ask what measurement and valuation are for? Though we are not explicitly told, we gather that they are supposed to be mainly useful to improve our general conceptions. But that may be disputed. Except casually and secondarily, numbers—arithmetical numbers—do not contribute to our conceptions. Their greatest utility by far—a utility more fundamental than that of all the constants of physics or the tables of the statisticians—is to keep our daily accounts, and so continually to check up our conduct without imparting any definite ideas. For 999 school-children out of a thousand this is destined to be the chief manner in which a knowledge of arithmetic will further their welfare. The corollary is, that the casting up of columns of figures easily, and swiftness in making those mental calculations which will enable them to overreach others in bargaining, are the bull's-eyes to be aimed at. True, man does not live by bread alone; but it must be the chief of his diet, so far as his nutriment is to come from arithmetic. If the Theory of Numbers were studied, that undoubtedly would afford a valuable training in logic, and impart some little exercise in mathematical generalization and even in mathematical imagination. But there is very, very little of all that in Vulgar Arithmetic.

It is a capital error, leading to the worst pedagogical blunders, to suppose that numbers have any significations whatever. Are "Eeny, meeny, mony, mi," etc., significant words? Charles Leland says they are Gipsy numerals. At any rate, they have precisely the force, use, and sense of primitive numbers. The essential use of numbers is that which the tourist in Italy has to put them to when he lugs about with him some baker's dozen of hand-packages, big and little, of all shapes and sorts, with no semblance of equality, but so many detached things, liable to be separately lost, and requiring to be incessantly counted. He might just as well use the words, "Eeny, meeny, mony, mi," etc., as "One, two, three, four," etc. Or he might use the syllables of "Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott," etc. In fact, the system of cardinal numbers may be defined as a scale of vocables, used as intermediary, for the establishment of one-to-one correspondences between different collections. To say, as our authors do, that the idea of measurement enters into the idea of all number, and should never be lost sight of in teaching, is on its theoretical side to confound things usefully distinguished, and on its practical side to fly in the face of the embryological maxim that the development of individual thought must follow the course of the development of thought in history. After we have once got the idea of metrical equality, we can perceive that it is verbally applicable (with little or no meaning) to the units of numeration. But that reflection does not help us to count. Who can doubt that man counted for ages before he began to measure, in the proper sense, and therefore before he had the conception of metrical equality?

It is useful to distinguish the different purposes of numbers, because a distinct system of numbers, each with its distinct modification of logic, is used for each purpose. For *counting*, we must use cardinal numbers; for the *assignment of places in cycles*, we use limited series (the names of the days of the week is such a system of numbers); for *dating* in series running indefinitely both ways (like the years B.C. and A.D.), we require negative as well as positive integers; for *measurement*, we need rational fractions; for *reasonings about continua*, where first the idea of a limit comes in, we need surds; for *comparing functions*, we need imaginaries; for *four-dimensional continuous numerations*, quaternions. It is a truism to say that, in teaching, one idea should be inculcated at a time, and the most rudimentary first. But above all in arithmetic, which, in its most practically important aspect, is a question of physiological habit of rapid, accurate ciphering, the less the operation is interfered with by superfluous reflections, the better. No doubt it is necessary to teach certain simple methods of reasoning; but they must be performed in an instinctive, quasi-mechanical way, without philosophizing. One can, with a microscope, detect traces of mathematics in vulgar arithmetic, but there is so little intellectual value in it, while it is so stupendously important as a practical skill, that it is better to sacrifice the former utility to the latter. To evaluate this work from the former point of view we should need no monstrous number, while from the latter standpoint we fear the datary system of numeration would have to be drawn upon.

Indian Polity: A View of the System of Administration in India. By Gen. Sir George Chesney, K. C. B., M.P. 3d edition. Longmans. Pp. xx, 400.

THE British administration of India is one of the most remarkable existing systems of government. A great empire, containing three hundred millions of people of different races and religions and in various stages of civilization, is administered by about a thousand English covenanted civil servants, assisted by a few thousand white subordinates and supported by about seventy thousand white soldiers. This fact is of itself such an astounding proof of the governing ability of the Anglo-Saxon race that it gives cause for surprise to find the general ignorance prevailing as to the methods and success of the British administration in India. Nothing like it has been seen in the world since the days when the Romans dominated Europe, Western Asia, and Northern Africa, bringing to tribes hardly more diverse than the peoples of India the material benefits of roads and bridges with the moral supremacy of law and order. Nothing could be more interesting than to compare the Roman government of the provinces during the golden days of the Roman domination with the administrative system established in India; and the chief difficulty in the way of such a study has hitherto been the absence of authoritative works describing either the Roman or the Anglo-Indian system. Within recent years, however, the works of Mommsen and others have done much to elucidate the Roman administrative system, while Sir George Chesney has, in the volume under review, arrayed the facts and principles of Indian administration in an orderly fashion. A comparative study, only less interesting than the one just suggested, might also be made of the methods adopted by three of the European Powers in ruling subject races, if there were in existence books as clear and complete as Sir George Chesney's, upon the Dutch administration of Java and the Spice Islands and the French administration of Algeria. The problem of the best method of governing alien races situated at a distance from the centre of rule does not, and is never likely to, confront the American people. But, since systems of government should interest thoughtful minds in spite of the absence of the probability of practical application, students of politics would do well to turn their attention at times to India as affording an object-lesson for the successful surmounting of the peculiar difficulties inherent in alien rule in distant provinces.

Sir George Chesney, whose lamented death last year closed a career in which he won distinction as a soldier, a politician, an administrator, and a man of letters, was well qualified to undertake the task of clearly describing

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the system which he himself knew well from practical experience. Though a clever writer, as his pamphlet 'The Battle of Dorking' clearly showed, and an able novelist, as his romance 'The Dilemma,' the best story ever written with its scene laid in the stirring days of the Indian Mutiny, fully proved, Chesney's fame will undoubtedly rest upon his 'Indian Polity.' The first edition appeared as far back as 1868, when the young officer of engineers was at home on a furlough, after having distinguished himself as a soldier at the siege of Delhi and exhibited his abilities as a subordinate administrator in many public offices. The success of his book, perhaps even more than his services, brought him the appointment of President of the Indian Civil Engineering College at Cooper's Hill in 1870, when it fell to him to organize from the beginning the great institution which has sent forth its crowds of graduates to develop the resources of India by means of railways, roads, and great engineering works. From 1880 to 1886 Chesney served as Military Secretary to the Government of India, and from 1886 until 1891 as a member of the Viceroy's Council. These offices enabled him to observe the workings of the Indian administration from a different point of view, and his more recent experience is shown in the careful revision which his book has undergone, and which has vastly improved it from the original text published when he was but a young officer. The arrangement of chapters, however, remains practically the same.

The introductory outline of Indian history is too short to be satisfactory, but it lays the foundation for the subsequent pages. In different chapters the author treats of the Supreme Government, the provincial governments, the legislative councils, the great departments, the district organization, the army, the different branches of public works, and finance. His chapters are descriptive, not controversial, and form incontestably the best source from which to obtain an accurate knowledge of the whole system of Indian administration. The only thing that can be compared with them is the chapters in Sir W. W. Hunter's encyclopædic work, 'The Indian Empire,' but Sir William had so much to include in his bulky volume that he was not able to give the same space to administrative questions as Sir George Chesney has done. It is a pity, however, that this new edition of Chesney's work was brought out before the amalgamation of the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay armies in the present year, and the substitution, for the antiquated presidential armies, of four army corps directly under the superintendence of the Commander-in-Chief, and that this great improvement, which Chesney himself had much at heart, should therefore remain unchronicled. With a knowledge of Hunter's chapters and Chesney's book, the student of administrative systems can obtain a fair working knowledge of the India which Mr. Kipling has made familiar to us all; and if further information is desired, several excellent books might be mentioned which have appeared during the last few months dealing with specific branches, notably Mr. Macgeorge's 'Ways and Works in India,' describing the manifold labors of the public-works department, and Mr. Tupper's 'Our Indian Protectorate,' classifying the relations between the Supreme Government and the various grades and types of native Indian princes. Such books as these might well be studied in classes and courses of lectures dealing with administrative systems; and in such classes and courses no better text-book could be adopted than the immediate subject of these remarks.

Goethe und die Brüder Grimm. Von Reinhold Steig. Berlin: Wilhelm Hertz. Pp 245.

GOETHE's personal influence was enormous. In the most widely separated fields of intellectual activity men turned to him for encouragement and sought the meed of his approval; public opinion was often formed by a word spoken in Weimar or by a page printed in *Kunst und Alterthum;* and doubtless many a man besides Savigny chose his career under the inspiration of some pregnant thought of Goethe's. There is therefore no line of investigation more helpful to the student than that which presents Goethe in his relations to eminent contemporaries. This service Mr. Steig has rendered in the case of the brothers Grimm.

The Grimms were identified with the so-called Romantic School, and Goethe was the bond by which the representatives of that school were united. It was he who had made the German past to live again in "Götz," he who had glorified the Gothic, and he who, in collaboration with Herder, had pointed to the folk-lore of nations as the truest expression of the people's inner life. In the meantime the sojourn in Italy had changed the direction of his endeavors. Towards the somewhat turbulent manifestations of the Old-German movement he maintained a cold reserve. What he had sought in the folk songs was the poetry, but the work of the Romanticists took on a political and patriotic character; moreover, it was tending rapidly to Roman Catholicism. Goethe was repelled. Tempted for a moment into unguarded praise of 'Des Knaben Wunderhorn,' he feared lest his name should be made the watchword of a party. He was in this frame of mind when Wilhelm Grimm sent him the 'Old Danish Songs.' The chilling politeness of his acknowledgments disappointed Grimm, who, however, correctly divined the cause. Indeed, Goethe approached all such collections with caution, for the Germans, he said, "do not always know exactly whether they are bringing in full sheaves of wheat or only bundles of straw." But he was soon to discover that the rich harvest of the Grimms contained nothing but grain.

In 1816 Goethe received the second volume of the 'Fairy Tales.' He was delighted, and the brothers soon had the satisfaction of hearing that Goethe had sent the book to Frau von Stein with words of affectionate praise. We owe it to Wilhelm Grimm that these tales took the popular form in which we read them. Jacob would have treated them from the strictly scientific standpoint, but Wilhelm, acting in the spirit of Goethe, to whom he was spiritually more closely related than his brother, insisted upon the poetic contents. Thus, although the work is but one of the stones in the colossal structure of Germanic philology which the Grimms were building, they made it at the same time, to use Wilhelm's words, "a reading-book for the edification of the German people." The absence of didactic purpose attracted Goethe. Speaking of the poetry of such tales, he said: "Instead of turning a man back upon himself, it lifts him up and bears him forth into regions where he is untrammelled and free."

But from the gloomy cloud-land of the 'Nibelungen' and the Eddas, Goethe always returned to the serene skies and plastic forms of Homer. Old-German literature never excited his lasting sympathy. "One reads it," he said to Eckermann, "and is interested in it for a time, but only in order to have done with it and leave it behind"; and in the second part of "Faust" he treats it as a stage of transition. He was too clear-sighted, however, not to recognize the permanent value of the achievements of the two brothers. He was pleased to see them steadfastly "a-katholisch." Moreover, they opened up for him the rich stores of Servian poetry, and as the astounding range of their learning was revealed and the monumental greatness of their work began to loom before him, he was eager to acknowledge their supremacy in the realms they had made their own. When the Freiherr von Stein unfolded to Goethe the famous Berlin Plan for historical societies in Germany, the latter appealed at once to the Grimms. Wilhelm prepared a valuable memorandum in reply, in which he defined the principles upon which the huge enterprise must be conducted. The object of the Plan was the unification of Germany in the realm of intellect, without which the political unity must remain a patriot's dream. In a period of general gloom these societies were to serve for the deepening of the national consciousness and for the strengthening of hearts. At the very inception of this great undertaking it was to the Grimms that Goethe as a matter of course turned. And yet again in a letter which Goethe wrote to Jacob in 1824 we find: "Let me feel from time to time that I have some share in your labors, which I know how to value, though at a little distance, and for which, so far as I am capable of comprehending them, I am glad to profess my genuine admiration." Thus the stamp of the highest approval had been placed upon the work of the brothers Grimm, even before they had begun to unfold their vaster designs at the Prussian capital.

To trace the causes of this gradual change in Goethe's attitude from benevolent reserve to full, admiring recognition is the task which Mr. Steig set himself; and with a wealth of interesting and instructive material, much of which has been placed at his disposal by Prof. Herman Grimm, he has accomplished his task in this entertaining volume. It will be welcome to every student of that brilliant age when the greatest scholars were poets and the greatest poet was a scholar.

There are a few misprints: Schaper's statue of Goethe in Berlin was unveiled, not in 1887, but in 1880. The book is furnished with an index, which, although it is not full enough, is yet a gratifying sign of better times.

Sacred and Legendary Art. By Anna Jameson. Edited, with additional notes, by Estelle M. Hurll, and abundantly illustrated with designs from ancient and modern art. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THE first instalment of Mrs. Jameson's proposed exhaustive treatise on the Legends of the Christian Church as represented in art, originally appeared in 1848. This book was called 'Sacred and Legendary Art,' a title which it would have been better to reserve for the whole series. 'Legends of the Monastic Orders' appeared in 1850, and 'Legends of the Madonna' in 1852; and after her death the notes she had prepared for a continuation of her work were brought into shape and added to by Lady Eastlake, and published as the 'History of Our Lord.' As the present publication has on the false title the words "The Writings on Art of Anna Jameson, in five volumes," one may infer that the present publishers intend issuing all the works cited

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above. The volumes before us correspond to the two volumes of 1848, and deal with the angelic host, the evangelists, the apostles, the doctors of the Church, the patron saints, the martyrs, etc., thus including the larger part of the subjects of legendary painting, except always the persons of the Trinity and the Madonna. Nine times out of ten the questions that arise in regard to an early picture of angels and saints can be answered from the pages of these two volumes, if at all, by Mrs. Jameson. The saintly subjects treated in the 'Legends of Monastic Orders' are of much less frequent occurrence as themes for painting and sculpture than the subjects connected with Bible History and the earlier church. The student goes to Mrs. Jameson's books to ask one of two questions: Who is the saint represented with certain attributes? and, What are the attributes with which a certain saint is represented? Beyond this, her pages are interesting reading, and are of valuable assistance in the study of early mediæval history and sociology. In the way of discussion and criticism of Fine Art they are not of great importance.

The original volumes were illustrated by many wood-cuts in the text, single figures for the most part selected from paintings and prints, and also by etchings printed separately and rendering sometimes the whole of a painted composition. The present edition omits the etchings and many, perhaps more than half, of the original text illustrations. To replace these, it gives some new text illustrations at least equal in number to those removed, and about eighteen full-page half-tones from famous pictures, including one from Dürer's print of St. Hubert. The editor's changes in the text are chiefly in the verification of statements about works of art. In some cases this amounts to nothing more than a record of the present location of the picture; in some it consists of a change or a questioning of the attribution to a certain master, in some of a correction where it appears that no such picture as mentioned by Mrs. Jameson is known to exist; and in some it involves additional information as to facts connected with the picture or as to works of art not mentioned in the text.

Little Rivers: A Book of Essays in Profitable Idleness. By Henry Van Dyke. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

ANGLING literature owes to clergymen some of its best known works, as the Rev. Josiah Frampton's 'Amusements of Clergymen,' the later delightful book of the Rev. Mr. Newland on 'The Erne: its Legends and its Salmon-fishing,' and the great work of Dr. Bethune, too modestly called the Bibliographical Preface to the Wiley edition of Walton. Dr. Van Dyke has well upheld the high reputation of the cloth in 'Little Rivers,' which is a series of angling sketches on a more serious background, worked into a combination so simple and charming, and so full of the spirit of pastoral and woodland scenes, as to make it sure to become a classic on its subject. With ostensible prominence, though perhaps to introduce and lighten the deeper vein of the book, the angling features are made to appear the most important to the casual reader; but each chapter shows a knowledge and study of the details of nature which could not exist were not Dr. Van Dyke a true and sympathetic lover of the woods and waters he so well describes.

As its title indicates, the volume treats of the various rivers visited and fished by its author in this country and in Canada, with three chapters from his transatlantic experiences. When all are so good it is hard to make a choice, but perhaps the introductory essay, "Little Rivers," and "At the Sign of the Balsam Bough" show most plainly the range of Dr. Van Dyke's powers as revealed in this publication. With a few exceptions the descriptions are accurate. The author has adopted the modern spelling of Ristigouche, changing the "i" in the first syllable to an "e." The Micmac word is "Mith-ti-gouth," 'the river spreading out like a hand,' and the early Government patents call it "Ristigouche." This older spelling has been adopted by the Ristigouche Salmon Club, which, by the way, did not, as is stated on p. 122, "at one time lease the whole river from the Canadian Government." The illustrations are on the whole good, though in some instances lacking in relevancy to the text of the pages near them; and in one case, on p. 139, certain of the Ristigouche settlers are depicted as on the way to Sunday-morning service *poling* down stream. Canoes are always paddled down and poled up stream, and, besides, those in the picture are not of a kind found in any salmon river known in Canada, and are as different from those in use on the Ristigouche as is a dray-horse from a thoroughbred. It is to be hoped that these and a few other superficial flaws may be mended in the future editions of 'Little Rivers,' which even with them is substantially perfect.

The Higher Criticism of the Pentateuch. By W. H. Green. Scribners. 1895.

FOR more than thirty years, since he wrote 'The Pentateuch vindicated from the Aspersions of Bishop Colenso' (1863), Prof. Green of Princeton has combated every phase of the modern criticism of the Old Testament. In a half-dozen volumes, the most important of which is 'The Hebrew Feasts' (1885), and in a multitude of articles in various periodicals—notably in a recent discussion in *Hebraica*—he has stanchly defended the unity and the Mosaic authorship of the entire Pentateuch. There is nothing, therefore, in his latest work which he has not repeatedly said before; but he has put together in small compass the best that can be said in support of the traditional opinion by its ablest surviving defender.

In the first two chapters, on "The Old Testament and its Structure," and on "The Plan and Contents of the Pentateuch," he endeavors to show that the Pentateuch exhibits such a marvellous unity, and is constructed upon so definite and well-conceived a plan, as to create the strong presumption that it is the product of one mind. The next chapter sets forth briefly and clearly the familiar arguments to prove that Moses was the author of the whole. The rest of the book is taken up with the refutation of opposing views. The history of the critical analysis is rehearsed at disproportionate length; the argument deals largely with a bygone stage of controversy, in the reign of Hengstenberg. The positions of the modern historical school, on the other hand, are very shortly disposed of under the head of the "Genuineness of the Laws": the three codes of law in the Pentateuch are in complete harmony, and there is nothing in them or in the subsequent history of Israel to justify a doubt that they were all given by Moses just as they profess to have been; the contrary opinion originates in the unwarranted assumptions of a theory of natural development. In conclusion, Prof. Green considers "The Bearing of the Divisive Criticism on the Credibility of the Pentateuch and on Supernatural Religion." He sees very clearly that if the oldest parts of the Pentateuch were written centuries after the events they relate, we have no historical sources at all for the Mosaic age; and that if the name "supernatural religion" is still to be applied to the religion of Israel as reconstructed by modern historians, it must be in a sense wholly different from that in which it has hitherto been understood.

Prof. Green pointedly addresses this warning to certain "evangelical" critics who think that they can accept the modern criticism without its consequences. He exhorts them, in view of these consequences, to draw back from their "ill-advised alliance." More wholesome counsel would be to think through.

Westminster Abbey and the Cathedrals of England. By Dean Farrar, Dean Milman, Dean Stanley, and other Clergymen. Edited by William Ellis Scull. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston & Co. 1895.

THIS is one of those illustrated books made possible by modern photographic processes. The illustrations are assuredly of great interest; they are half-tone prints of good quality and of well selected subjects. If, for instance, we take the chapter entitled Durham, we find, first, a full-page picture of the cathedral on its height, with the river sweeping beneath the bank; then, as a head-piece, a very charming view of Lindisfarne Abbey—and the page is large enough to allow even a head-piece six inches in width, the size of a very respectable picture. Following these is a representation of that curious piece of sculpture the "Dun Cow," which, as a paragraph of the text explains, has to do with the legend of St. Cuthbert. There are five views more of the cathedral of Durham, general views and details, and a capital instantaneous picture from life of two Holy Island fisherwomen. Finally, a photographic portrait of Dr. Lightfoot, the late Bishop, and one of the present incumbent, Bishop Westcott, each accompanied by a brief biographical notice, complete the illustration of this chapter, the text of which has been furnished by Canon Talbot of Durham. A similar chapter is devoted to Lincoln Cathedral, one to Salisbury, and others to Chester, Winchester, etc.; nine chapters in all. Each is completely illustrated, and a considerable body of architectural detail is thus brought together. It will be seen that this book offers a great deal of interest and of information, but the arrangement is wholly for those who care for the episcopal sees as such; all other readers must arrange and assimilate this information for themselves. It should be mentioned that the notices of "the dignitaries," one of which accompanies each chapter, have been written by the Rev. L. B. Thomas of St. Peter's Church, Philadelphia.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, J. L. Aftermath. Harpers. $1.
Amicis, Edmondo de. Spain and the Spaniards. 2 vols. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $5.
Austen, Frances V. and Edward J. Elfie and the Katydid. Merriam Co. $1.25.
Ball, E. O. Industrial Agitation. Humboldt Publishing Co. 25c.
Bangs, J. K. A House-Boat on the Styx. Harpers. $1.25.
Besant, Sir Walter. Westminster. Illustrated. F. A. Stokes Co. $3.
Bibliographica. Part VII. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Blagden, Rev. Silliman. Some Poems and Prose which would fain Exalt "The Word of God." Boston: The Author.
Blake, M. M. Courtship by Command: A Story of Napoleon at Play. Appletons. 75c.
Brooks, E. S. Great Men's Sons. Putnams. $1.50.
Brownson, H. F. Faith and Science. Detroit: The Author.
Bryan, John. Fables and Essays. New York: Arts and Lettres Co.
Chambers, E. K. English Pastorals. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.

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Cheever, Harriet A. Little Jolliby's Christmas. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society.
Coates, H. T. Fireside Encyclopædia of Poetry. 31st ed., revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $3.50.
Conyngham, Dane. *Eunice Quince*: A New England Romance. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.25.
Courtier, Monsignor le. Thoughts and Counsels for Women of the World. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. $1.25.
Craddock, Charles Egbert. The Mystery of Witch-Face Mountain, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Craig, Prof. J. M. Assyrian and Babylonian Religious Texts. Vol. I. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs.
Crickmore, H. H. Old Chester. Scribners. $2.50.
Croswell, J. G. Macaulay's Essay on Milton. Longmans, Green & Co. 60c.
Darmesteter, Mary. Froissart. Scribner's. $3.
Dickens, Charles. Our Mutual Friend. Macmillan. $1.
Dickinson, Mary L. The Temptation of Katharine Gray. Philadelphia: A. J. Rowland. $1.50.
Downing, Marlton, and French, H. W. The Young Cascarillero, and Colonel Thorndike's Adventures. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.
Ehrenfechter, C. A. Delivery in the Art of Pianoforte Playing. London: William Reeves: New York: Scribners. 75c.
Ellis, E. S. The Youth's Plutarch's Lives. New York: Woolfall Co. 50c.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Gathering Clouds: A Tale of the Days of St. Chrysostom. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Foa, Eugénie. The Boy Life of Napoleon. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Ford, Harriet. Me an' Methuselar, and Other Episodes. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.
Ford, J. L. Dolly Dillenbeck: A Portrayal of Certain Phases of Metropolitan Life and Character. G. H. Richmond & Co.
Giles, Dr. A. E. Moral Pathology. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Gladden, Rev. Washington. *Ruling Ideas of the Present Age*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Goliancz, Israel. A Midsummer-Night's Dream. Illustrated. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Greene, Belle C. The Hobbledehoy. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Grinnell, G. B. The Story of the Indian. Appletons. $1.50.
Harper's Round Table. 1895. Harpers. $3.50.
Heller, Louie R. André Chénier: A Memorial. Home Book Co. $1.25.
Holdsworth, Annie E. The Years that the Locust Hath Eaten. Macmillan. $1.25.
Johnstone, D. L. The Brotherhood of the Coast. Whittaker. $1.50.
Knox, T. W. Boy's Life of Gen. Grant. Merriam Co. $1.50.
Le Baron, Grace. "Little Daughter." Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Livingston, Z. S. American Book-Prices Current. Vol. I. Dodd, Mead & Co. $6.
Mackay, Rev. G. L. From Far Formosa: The Island, its People and Missions. F. H. Revell Co. $2.
Nicklin, J. A. Verses. London: David Nutt.
North, Helen M. The Mary Lyon Year Book. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society.
Olcott, H. S. Old Diary Leaves: The True Story of the Theosophical Society. Madras: The *Theosophist*; New York: Putnams. $2.
Pennell, Joseph. *Modern Illustrations*. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Puddefoot, Rev. W. G. The Minute Man on the Frontier. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Rashdall, Hastings. The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $14.
Ricci, Corrado. *Antonio Allegri da Correggio: His Life, His Friends and His Time*. Scribners. $12.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Five-Minute Stories. New ed. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Richards, Mrs. Laura E. Queen Hildegarde: A Story for Girls. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Rinder, Frank. Old-World Japan: Legends of the Land of the Gods. Illustrated. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Shapleigh, Mary Y. On Winds of Fancy Blown. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Shelley, P. B. *The Banquet of Plato*. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Shirley, Penn. Young Master Kirke. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Sinbad the Sailor, and Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves Illustrated. Scribners. $2.
Sinclair, Lieut. Arthur, C. S. N. Two Years on the Alabama. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Sirven, Paul. Théophile Gautier. [Pages Choisies des Grands Ecrivains.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Sladen, Douglas. A Japanese Marriage. Macmillan. $1.25.
The Book Lover's Almanac. 1896. Duprat & Co. $3.
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